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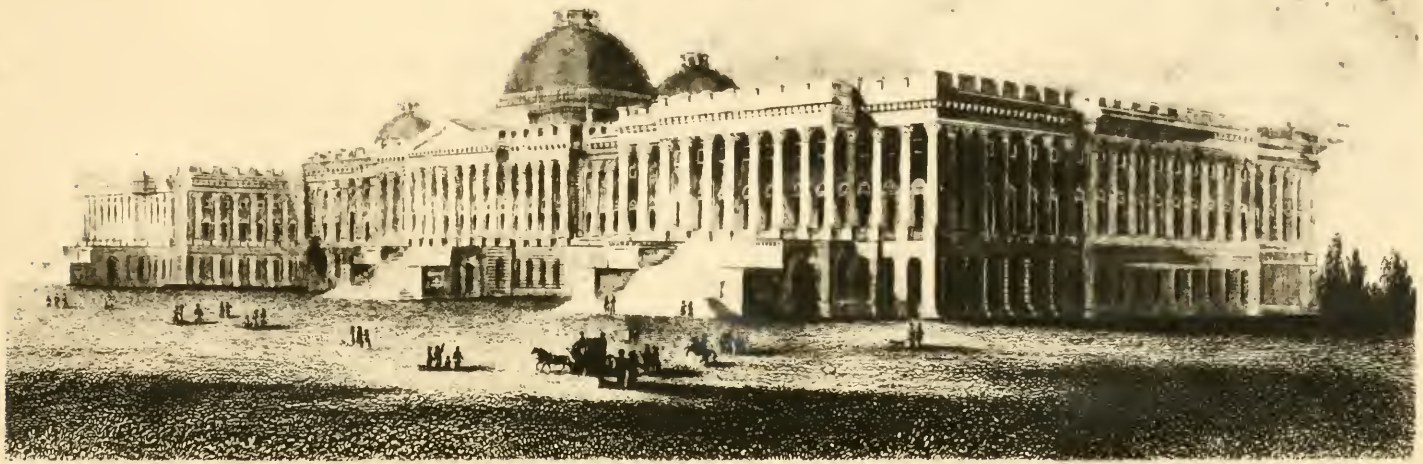

ENGRAVED BY J. STEEL.—THE ORIGINAL BY T. U. WALTER.

NORTH EAST VIEW OF THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

THE

UNITED STATES MANUAL

OF

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY:

COMPRISING

LIVES OF THE PRESIDENTS AND VICE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND THE CABINET OFFICERS,

FROM THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION TO THE PRESENT DAY.

ALSO, LIVES OF

THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE,

AND OF THE OLD ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION,

OF THE FRAMERS OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES,

AND

OF THE CHIEF JUSTICES OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.

WITH AUTHENTIC COPIES OF THE

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION, AND THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED

AN INTRODUCTORY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

By JAMES V. MARSHALL.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

PORTRAITS OF ALL THE PRESIDENTS, FROM ORIGINAL DESIGNS.

PHILADELPHIA:
PUBLISHED BY JAMES B. SMITH & CO.
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PREFACE.

The object of the author of the "United States Manual" is to furnish his countrymen with a complete compendium of biography of the distinguished statesmen who have taken part in public affairs from the colonial period of our history to the present day.

At the same time, the work will be found to afford a history of the country, as well as a complete series of biographies of its public men. The Introductory History extends from the discovery of America, by Columbus, to the Declaration of Independence. The life of Washington carries forward the national history to the close of his administration; and the lives of the other Presidents comprise the histories of their respective administrations, thus rendering the national history complete.

In examining the list of public men whose lives are comprised in this volume, the reader will not fail to perceive that it comprises all who have taken a very prominent part in our national affairs. These men have been required, by the exigencies of the times, to sign the old articles of Confederation or the Declaration of Independence, or to assist in framing the Constitution of the United States, or to act as

Presidents, Vice-Presidents, or Cabinet Ministers, or Chief Justices of the Supreme Court.

The author has endeavoured not only to be accurate in giving historical facts and dates, but also to render the volume as entertaining and readable as possible. Its value and convenience as a book of reference to the reader of history, or to the citizen taking a part in politics, must be obvious to every one.

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Introductory History of the United States.

The earliest knowledge of this continent, according to traditionary claims, but supported by respectable evidence, was had by the Northmen. Near the close of the tenth century, as the Icelandic authorities allege, Eric the Red emigrated from Iceland to Greenland, and formed a settlement there. Among those who accompanied him was Heriulf Bardson, who had a son named Biarne, absent on a trading voyage in Norway, at the time of his departure. Biarne, on returning, sailed in pursuit of his father; but his vessel was soon enveloped in fogs, and he was carried for many days in an unknown direction. At length the fog cleared away, and the voyagers saw land to the left, while sailing with a south-west wind. As it did not correspond with the descriptions of Greenland, they sailed on two days, when they again came in sight of land. Still sailing with a south-west wind, they kept out to sea, and three days afterward saw a third land, which they discovered to be an island. After four days more sailing with fresh gales, they reached Heriulfsness, in Greenland. It is conjectured that Biarne had been carried by a north-east wind and currents to the American shores; but sailed back along the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador, and thence to his destination. Some years afterward, he made known his voyage and discovery to Eric, earl of Norway, who censured him for not having explored that unknown region. On his return to Greenland, a voyage of exploration was determined upon. Leif, a son of Eric the Red, bought for this purpose Biarne's ship, and sailed with a crew of twenty-five men in the year 1000. They came first to the tract last discovered by Biarne, and landed. They again put out to sea, however, and sailed, as is supposed, along the coast of Nova Scotia, where they also went ashore. Sailing from thence for two days with a north-east wind, they are from their account believed to have coasted along the New England shores, spending the winter in the region of Rhode Island and Massachusetts. Here a German in their company discovered wild grapes. They returned to Greenland, and from that time various voyages of exploration were undertaken, as the Icelanders assert, and a colony planted in Vinland—the name given to the new region last described. It is also said that traces of the colony left by the Northmen were found so late as the fourteenth century, by two Venetian navigators, sailing in the service of a Norman prince of the Orcades, and who visited Vinland.

Whatever may be the truth of this account—which, however, has never been relinquished by the Icelandic scholars, and was revived, not many years since, by the Royal Society of Antiquaries at Copenhagen—the discovery of the Northmen was not attended with lasting results; and if real, originated in mere accident. The merit of discovering a New World belongs, undoubtedly, to another name and people.

Christopher Columbus, to whom the honour of discovering this continent is pre-eminently due, was born in Genoa, in 1435. His early acquaintance with geometry, astronomy, and cosmography, and his rare attainments in those branches, were the foundation of that distinction as a navigator which he afterward acquired; and fostered in his mind, for many years of patient research, the conception of that bold enterprise, which finally gave a new hemisphere to the nations of the globe.

Passing over his personal history and adventures, which are familiar to almost every reader, we come at once to the period of the discovery, in 1492. The continent was not, however, reached in this voyage, but the adjacent Islands, to which he gave the name of the West Indies. The purpose of his voyage had been to find a western route to the Indies, and thence the name given by him to this group. Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, who soon afterward visited the newly discovered land, was the first to proclaim that another continent had been found; and in compliment to him, it was called America. But the first adventurers who actually coasted along its shores were John and Sebastian Cabot, in 1498. The English name, therefore, wears the honour, second only to that rightfully earned by Columbus, of exploring a far-off hemisphere; and from the bold enterprise of her native sons sprang the wide empire which so long bore her sway, and to which she bequeathed the immortal impress of her greatness.

Although, during the first quarter of the sixteenth century, several voyages of exploration were prosecuted to the new-found region—those of chief importance, subsequent to the adventures of the Cabots, were undertaken by the French. The Banks of Newfoundland were visited by their fishermen as early as 1504; and in 1523, John Verrazani, a Florentine, was sent on a voyage of discovery by Francis I. He explored the American coast from North Carolina to Nova Scotia, and held friendly intercourse with the natives. The French claims to their American territories were founded upon his discoveries. In 1534 and '5 the gulf and river of St. Lawrence were explored by James Cartier, and the country declared a French territory. He gave to it the name of New France. Some attempts were made a few years afterward, under commission from Francis I., to colonize this country; but it was not till the beginning of the seventeenth century that any permanent settlement was made by the French. Champlain, in 1608, occupied the site of the city of Quebec, and also explored the lake now bearing his name.

Florida was discovered by Juan Ponce de Leon, a Spanish adventurer, in 1512. He landed at the site of St. Augustine, and took possession in the name of the king. The various efforts made to conquer this country from the Indians were, however, long unsuccessful. The great object of which the Spaniards were in quest was gold; and the unexampled resources of soil and climate were passed unheeded. But before the middle of that century, these adventurers had pushed their explorations as far as the Mississippi, and even the Missouri. Thus far, however, no settlement had been effected by the Spaniards. It was not until the French attempted this object, in the quarter where so much Spanish blood and toil and treasure had been expended, that the importance of such a measure to the establishment of their claim was realized.

Settlements by the French were attempted in 1562 and '4, under Charles IX., but with only partial success. These colonists were Protestants. An expedition was now fitted out by Spain for the permanent occupation of Florida. This reached its destination, under the command of Pedro Melendez, in August, 1565. He landed at St. Augustine, and took possession of the continent in the name of the king of Spain, and laid the foundation of the town. This was on the 8th of September; and St. Augustine bears the oldest name of any European settle-

ment in America. The French colony in that neighbourhood were destroyed by wreck and the sword—and such as fell into the Spanish hands from the flight by sea, were hung on gibbets, with the inscription over their heads—"*Not as Frenchmen, but as Protestants.*" A few years after, a French officer of some distinction fitted out an avenging expedition, and surprising the Spanish settlement, captured several prisoners, who were forthwith hanged upon trees, with the inscription over their heads—"*I do not this as unto Spaniards or mariners, but as unto traitors, robbers, and murderers.*"

Meantime, and throughout that century, the English were engaged in repeated but ineffectual attempts to colonize America. The problem of a "north-west passage" to India also engaged their attention at this early period. In the prosecution of this search, they not only explored Hudson's Bay, but, in 1579, Sir Francis Drake sailed on the Pacific coast as far as the forty-third degree of north latitude, in quest of the strait supposed to connect the two oceans. He was the first Englishman who visited the Oregon territory. The plan of colonization was, in the same year, undertaken by Sir Humphrey Gilbert; but through various disasters failed of success. In 1583, his step-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, joined him; but nothing was accomplished by their expedition but the taking possession of Newfoundland in the queen's name, and Gilbert's bark was foundered on their return. Another attempt was made by Raleigh in 1584, and two vessels despatched by him arrived safely on the shores of Carolina. Having explored Albemarle and Pamlico sounds, and Roanoke Island, they returned to England. To the fertile region thus added to her dominions, Queen Elizabeth gave the name of Virginia. A considerable colony was afterward planted here by Raleigh, but they soon abandoned the enterprise and returned. In 1603, Bartholomew Gosnold made a voyage to the Massachusetts coast, and a settlement was attempted, but finally abandoned. These and other voyages served, however, to keep alive the English claims. We have now arrived to the period of the actual settlement of the original States.

On the accession of James I. to the throne, the project of establishing colonies was revived. An association for this purpose was entered into by men of rank and business. They laid their plan before the king, and petitioned him for authority to carry it into execution. He granted their request, and divided America, from the 34th to the 45th degree of north latitude, into two nearly equal districts, called South and North Virginia. The first part was allotted to a company in London; and the other to certain persons, mostly residing in Plymouth. Their charters were of the same tenor. By them the supreme power was vested in a council resident in England, and the subordinate jurisdiction in a council residing in the colony; the members of both were to be nominated by the king, and to act conformable to his instructions; the colonists were entitled to the rights of Englishmen, and were to enjoy a free trade. The proprietors, on receiving their charters, immediately prepared to settle their respective colonies; little imagining they were laying the foundation of powerful and independent states.

The first settlement was made in the southern colony, which at length only retained the name of Virginia. One hundred and five men, embarked in three vessels under Captain Newport, sailed for the old settlement of Roanoke, but were driven by a storm to the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. They sailed up this spacious inlet, and entered James River. Delighted with the appearance of the country, they determined to fix their residence here. They took possession of a peninsula, and built Jamestown, in April, 1607.

These emigrants were not well qualified to settle and improve an uncultivated country. Many of them were dissipated and profligate, incapable of subordination, and destitute of that industry and economy which their situation required.

Dissensions broke out among their leaders; they were involved in a war with the natives; they suffered from famine and disease; and, in the course of six months, one-half their number died. The energy and talents of Captain Smith, who at first had been deprived of his seat in the council, saved the colony from utter ruin. Being advanced to the chief command, he restored order, overawed the savages, and acquired a stock of provisions. But, in an excursion against the Indians, he was made prisoner, and condemned to death by Powhatan, the king. At the moment the sentence was to be executed, Pocahontas, his favourite daughter, rushed between Captain Smith and the executioner. With tears and entreaties she prevailed upon her father to spare his life, and soon after procured his liberty.

In a few years this Indian princess, with the consent of her father, married Mr. Rolfe, an English planter. She went with him to England, and was baptized into the Christian faith. She died on her return to Virginia, leaving one son, from whom are descended some of the most respectable families in Virginia.

On Captain Smith's return to Jamestown, he found the colonists in the utmost distress. Their wants, however, were soon supplied, and their numbers increased by arrivals from England. But, as Captain Smith was obliged to return home, the new settlers continued to neglect the cultivation of the earth, and spent their time in searching for gold. Their former miseries of course returned, and they increased to such a degree, that of five hundred settlers, in a few months only sixty remained. It was then determined to abandon the country. They set sail in 1609, but before they reached the mouth of James river they were fortunately met by Lord Delaware, with three ships from England, having on board a considerable stock of provisions, and some new settlers. He had been appointed governor of the colony, and brought with him a new charter from the king, wherein the privileges of the proprietors were enlarged.

Lord Delaware prevailed on the former settlers to return with him to Jamestown. Under his wise administration, the colony once more began to assume a promising appearance, and the inhabitants thought no more of abandoning the country.

Until the year 1613, the lands were cultivated by the joint labours of the settlers, and the produce carried into a common store, from which each inhabitant received a stated allowance. This was a great error, and retarded the progress of improvement. The land was now laid off in lots, and one granted to each individual. This gave a spring to industry; and it was reckoned that more labour was performed in a day than was formerly accomplished in a week. The colony henceforth enjoyed plenty of the necessaries of life, and the way was prepared for future opulence.

As the demand for tobacco increased in England, the Virginians, about 1616, began to cultivate that commodity, which soon became the principal article of export. About this time, a Dutch ship from Guinea sailed up James river, and sold part of her cargo of slaves to the planters. This traffic being introduced, the foundation of slavery was laid in the new world. Near one-half the population of the Southern States consists of slaves, which it is equally difficult to liberate or to retain in bondage.

The colonists were chiefly males, who, constrained to live single, had little attachment to the country. A considerable number of young women, of humble birth, but unexceptionable character, were, in 1616, sent over by the council in London. The planters received them with fondness, and engaged to pay the price of their passage in tobacco. The debts contracted on their account had the preference in law to all others. The Virginians now considered the country as belonging to them and their children, and became more attached to it and interested in its prosperity.

Convicts were introduced about the same time, and were sold as servants for a certain number of years.

The colony had hitherto been governed by the laws of the corporation in England or its officers in Jamestown; and martial law had for some time been in use. But in 1619, the representative form, so dear to freemen, was introduced. A general assembly was summoned by Governor Yardley. Delegates from eleven corporations appeared, and, with the governor and council, assumed the legislative authority. The laws they enacted, however, were of no force till transmitted to London for the approbation of the company, and returned under its seal.

Virginia was fast advancing in numbers and wealth, when an event took place which brought it to the brink of ruin. The Indians, though apparently on good terms with the colonists, had for some years been meditating their destruction. They laid their plans with the greatest secrecy, and resolved to cut them off by a general massacre. On the 22d of March, 1622, at midday, the attack was made. They rushed at once on the different settlements, when the people were secure and scattered abroad at their labour, and murdered man, woman, and child. In one hour near one-fourth of the colony was cut off. The destruction would have been greater, had not a converted Indian given information in time to save Jamestown and the places adjacent. A bloody war ensued, in which neither old nor young of the Indians were spared. By an unjustifiable retaliation, the colonists allured the Indians by offers of peace, and when they had returned to their former settlements, perfidiously fell upon them, and murdered all they found. Some tribes were totally extirpated.

The council in London, having divided into factions, and King James being displeased at their proceedings, he directed the attorney-general to institute a suit against them. The cause was tried in the court of king's bench. Their charter was forfeited, and all the powers granted by it returned to the king. The colony had not, on the whole, been prosperous under the direction of the company. A great expense was incurred, and small returns had been made. Of nine thousand persons who emigrated thither, scarcely eighteen hundred remained at the dissolution of the company in 1624. The colony then became a royal government, under the immediate jurisdiction of the crown.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The immediate cause of settling the northern colony was the persecution carried on in England on account of religious opinions. When Henry VIII. separated from the Church of Rome, he still retained the prelatical government and pompous ceremonies of that church. Many of the people were desirous of a further reformation. The Puritans, as they were called, chiefly inclined to the Presbyterian mode of church government, which establishes an equality among the pastors, and entirely rejects the Roman ceremonies. But some went further, and embraced the Independent scheme, which places pastors and people upon a level, and gives every congregation complete jurisdiction in its own affairs. The sacred rights of conscience were at that time but little understood, and the idea of toleration was unknown. The government of England required a strict observance of the rites it established, and enacted severe laws against non-conformity. The levelling principles of the Brownists, or Independents, were the most obnoxious; and the professors of them were often punished with rigour, both by civil and ecclesiastical courts. About 1608, a body of these people fled to Holland, and settled under Mr. Robinson, their pastor. After some years, they became discontented with their situation, and resolved to remove to America. Their first object was to ask the free exercise of religion. Though King James

refused the reasonable request, he gave a verbal promise not to molest them while they continued peaceable subjects. On this slender security they applied to the London company for a tract of land, which was readily obtained.

They intended to settle on Hudson's River, but the captain of the vessel, designedly, it is said, carried them as far north as Cape Cod. This was beyond the limits of the company. But it was so late in the year, that here they were necessarily obliged to take up their abode. They chose a situation, which they called New Plymouth; and having signed a compact for the rule of their government, they landed on the 11th of November, 1620.

The emigrants were but one hundred and one in number, and were but poorly provided for the severe winter that ensued. Nearly one-half of them perished before spring, by famine and disease. The population of the settlement increased slowly, and at the end of three years did not exceed three hundred souls. They subsisted as a voluntary, independent society; but were never incorporated by charter, and at last were united to Massachusetts Bay.

The government in England, under the counsels of Archbishop Laud, growing more oppressive, and the number and zeal of the Puritans increasing, many began to turn their eyes to New England, as a place where they might enjoy their religious opinions with freedom. An association was formed in order to settle a colony in Massachusetts Bay. A tract of land was purchased from the Plymouth council in 1627, and a charter granted by King Charles the following year. The adventurers had the right of the soil and the powers of government conferred on them. The first governor and assistants were named by the king; their successors were to be chosen by the corporation; the legislative powers to be exercised by the proprietors. They were allowed a free trade, and were to be accounted natural born subjects.

Soon after receiving this charter, upward of three hundred persons, mostly Puritans, embarked for New England. They landed at Salem in 1629, where they found a few of their brethren who had emigrated the preceding year. Their first care was to form themselves into a church state, on the Independent or Congregational plan. Among the emigrants were a few who preferred the ritual of the Church of England, and being offended at the total abolition of it, assembled separately for public worship. But the Independents, believing the plan of their church perfect, would allow of no deviation from it. With an inconsistency not uncommon among men, they denied to others the privileges they had claimed for themselves. They had just fled from persecution, yet they instantly became persecutors. The governor summoned the chief malecontents before him, and, though they were men of note, expelled them from the colony.

A number of persons of wealth and respectable families in England, intending to embark for Massachusetts, were desirous to have the corporate powers of the company transferred to that country. In a general court held for this purpose, all the rights of the company were vested in a governor, deputy governor, and eighteen assistants, together with the people.

This salutary measure being effected, in the year 1630, fifteen hundred persons sailed for the colony. On their arrival, they laid the foundation of Boston, Charlestown, and other towns. They proceeded to regulate their own civil and ecclesiastical policy; and enacted a law that none should have any share in the government but such as were members of the church. As the clergy were the principal judges of the qualifications that entitled a man to this privilege, they, in effect, held the rights of every freeman in their hands, and gained great influence in the affairs of the state. This law was repealed by order of Charles II.

The settlements becoming more numerous and widely dispersed, it was inconvenient for the freemen to attend personally to the affairs of the corporation. In 1634, they elected representatives to appear in their name. The delegates met,

and, in conjunction with the governor and assistants, considered themselves as the supreme legislature of the colony; and enacted that no tax should be raised, and no public office appointed, but in the general assembly.

The colony had deviated from its charter, in organizing both its civil and ecclesiastical government, and had acted as independent of England. These proceedings offended King Charles and his ministers, and he was about to new model the colony. But the difference between the king and the parliament coming to a crisis, his attention was called to more domestic and interesting concerns, and the colony had leisure to pursue its plans.

Notwithstanding the care taken to maintain uniformity in religion, theological controversies arose, and greatly agitated the people. Several persons, deemed heretics, were banished, and others voluntarily went in quest of new settlements.

RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. Roger Williams, a clergyman, being obliged to leave Massachusetts on account of his religious tenets, travelled southward, accompanied with a number of his hearers. They received a grant of lands from the Indians in 1634, which they called Providence. Other emigrants afterward acquired Rhode Island. In these settlements the inhabitants united by a voluntary compact. Full toleration of religious opinions was established. This liberal policy soon drew a number of settlers, and the colony became populous. In 1674, Providence and Rhode Island were incorporated as one government by King Charles the II., on such liberal and democratic principles, that the charter then granted, still continues the constitution of the State.

CONNECTICUT.

A body of people emigrated from Massachusetts, with the consent of the government, and in 1635, settled on Connecticut River. Next year emigrants from England founded New Haven. This colony at first tried to bring into practice that refined but impracticable speculation of having all things in common. But they soon relinquished this plan, as it only produced idleness and waste. None were accounted freemen but such as were members of the church; and they were severe against heretics. They ordered that the judicial laws of Moses should be the mode of proceeding against criminals.

Connecticut and New Haven continued two distinct colonies for many years; at length a royal charter was obtained in 1665, from Charles II., constituting the two colonies, for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of Connecticut. This charter is still the constitution of the State. It is remarkable that Charles, whose government in Britain was arbitrary and oppressive, should establish liberal governments in some of his colonies.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

A settlement was made in 1623, under a grant of the Plymouth company; but the religious differences in Massachusetts was the chief occasion of peopling New Hampshire. Mr. Wheelwright, an eminent minister, was banished for holding tenets that were condemned by the ruling party. A number of his people joined him, and advancing toward the north, founded the town of Exeter, in 1637, having first purchased the lands from the natives. This colony was long harassed by the conflicting titles of different proprietors. For several years it was united with Massachusetts, but in 1679 it was finally erected into a distinct government by charter from the king.

In 1643, the colonies of New Haven, Plymouth, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, entered into a confederacy, under the name of the United Colonies of New England, which continued till 1686. It was then stipulated that two commissioners from each colony should meet annually, to decide on matters of common concern; that the votes of six members should bind the whole; that in every war, each colony should furnish its quota of men money and provisions, in proportion to the number of people; and that every colony should be distinct, and have exclusive jurisdiction within its own territory.

Though the strong members of this confederacy did not always act in a liberal manner toward their associates, yet it increased the power and security of the whole.

From the first settlement at New Plymouth, in 1620, until 1640, when the Puritans gained the ascendency in England, and the emigration ceased, it was computed that twenty-one thousand two hundred British subjects had arrived. Since that time the number has increased almost solely by natural population. For some years after the settlement, the colonists had to struggle with many difficulties. The Indians were often hostile; the country was covered with wood; the winters were long and severe; subsistence was scanty, and many perished with disease. But the survivors were not discouraged. Amid all their hardships they counted themselves happy in being governed by their own laws and allowed their own mode of worship. In a few years they overawed the natives; the necessaries of life became plenty; they began to export lumber, and apply themselves to the fisheries, and so laid the foundation of that commerce which has since been carried to a very great extent.

As the colonies in New England were indebted for their origin to religion, and the first settlers were desirous of further purity in the discipline and government of the church than they were allowed in their native country, these motives gave a peculiar tincture to the character and institutions of the people, as has been noticed in several instances. But they also remarkably fitted them for encountering the dangers and surmounting the obstacles of their new and untried situation. They were a sober, industrious, and persevering people, and a portion of the same spirit among their descendants finally led them to liberty, independence, and peace.

We have been thus particular in the detail of the settlements in Virginia and New England, as being the original and parent colonies; we shall be more brief in our account of the others.

MARYLAND.

In June, 1632, Charles I. granted to Lord Baltimore that country now called Maryland. The charter of Virginia included this territory, and the company complained of the grant as a violation of their rights. The first emigration consisted of two hundred gentlemen, chiefly Roman Catholics, of considerable fortune, with their adherents. Like the Puritans of New England, they hoped to enjoy in the wilderness that liberty of conscience and worship they were denied in their native country. They landed in Maryland in 1633. Governor Calvert, brother to Lord Baltimore, purchased of the Indians the right of soil, and with their consent took possession of their town, which he called St. Mary's. The country was settled with ease. The plan of the government was liberal, and every person was secured in the right of worshipping God according to his conscience. The settlers applied themselves to the cultivation of tobacco, and the country soon became flourishing and populous.

Maryland was the first colony in America that was erected into a province of the British empire. In 1639, the representatives of the freemen met in general assembly.

CAROLINA.

This country was taken possession of by a company of French Protestants, who fled from persecution, and settled near Albemarle river. This colony was extirpated by the Spaniards. In 1662, Charles II. granted the country to Lord Clarendon and seven other noblemen, and in 1669, the proprietors sent over a number of settlers, who fixed their residence at the place where Charleston now stands. A constitution was formed for the colony, at the desire of the proprietors, by the famous Mr. John Locke. Never was the fallacy of theory, when applied to new and untried situations, more fully manifested than in this instance. Mr. Locke was one of the most acute philosophers of the age, and though his constitution was ingenious, it was totally inapplicable to the state of the country; and after being many years a source of disquiet, was at last totally changed. This colony was long in an unsettled and unprosperous state. The Episcopalians and Dissenters quarrelled about religion; the people were harassed by the Indians, and invaded by the French and Spaniards; they suffered by famine, and perished by disease. The government of the proprietors being disastrous, they in 1719, gave up the interest to the crown, and the colony became a royal government. Under the protection of equal laws, commerce extended, agriculture flourished, and the colonies increased in population and wealth.

In 1728, the country was divided into two different colonies, called North and South Carolina.

NEW YORK.

In 1614, the Dutch settled in New York and New Jersey, and named the country New Netherlands. A few years afterward, the Swedes settled on several parts east and west of Delaware river, and kept possession till 1654, when they were overpowered by the Dutch.

Charles II. resolved to assert his right to this territory. In 1664, he granted to his brother, the duke of York, the region extending from the western banks of Connecticut River, to the eastern shore of Delaware, together with Long Island, conferring on him the civil and military powers of government. Colonel Nichols was sent, with four frigates and three hundred soldiers, to reduce the country. The Dutch governor being unable to make resistance, the New Netherlands submitted to the English crown; and Nichols instantly entered upon the exercise of power, as deputy-governor of New York for the duke of York, afterward James II.

NEW JERSEY.

About the same time the Duke of York disposed of New Jersey to Lord Berkeley, and Sir George Carteret. The plan of government was liberal, and the colony soon became populous. The proprietors divided their property by a line from north to south; hence the names of East and West Jersey. In 1722, the province became a royal government.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania was next settled. Mr. William Penn, the celebrated Quaker, presented a petition to Charles II., in June, 1680, stating not only his relationship to his father, the late admiral, for whom his majesty had designed a grant

of territory, but also that he was deprived of a debt due from the crown, when the exchequer was shut. He prayed for a grant of lands lying to the northward of Maryland and westward of the Delaware; and added that by his interest he might be able to settle a colony, which in time would repay his claims. The next year the patent was granted, and in 1682, Philadelphia was founded.

William Penn, not satisfied with the authority of the king of England to grant the lands of the natives, made purchases of the soil from themselves. He introduced into his colony the most liberal plan of policy; allowed full liberty of conscience, and granted lands to settlers on easy terms. By these means the colony became the most flourishing of any in America.

DELAWARE.

Delaware was settled at the same time, by Mr. Penn, who purchased the territory from the duke of York. Many years before his arrival, a colony of Dutch and Swedes had settled on the banks of the Delaware. Mr. Penn says he was kindly received by them, and that they were a sober, laborious people, with large families of children. The proprietary government continued in Pennsylvania and Delaware until the Revolution in 1776.

GEORGIA.

It now remains to give some account of the settlement of Georgia. In 1732, a number of gentlemen, considering the great benefit that might arise from settling the tract of land between the River Savannah and Altahama, petitioned the king for a charter, which was granted in June the same year.

In the beginning of November, about one hundred and sixteen persons presented themselves, most of them labouring people, and were furnished with working tools of all kinds, stores, and small arms. Mr. Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, generously attended these emigrants to Carolina, where they arrived in January, 1733.

They soon after proceeded to the country allotted for them, and having purchased land from the Creek Indians, founded the town of Savannah. This colony was long before it attained to population or strength, owing to the impracticable system of government established by the proprietors. They expended large sums of money with the most upright intentions; but the inhabitants were in a state of confusion and wretchedness. In 1752, they surrendered their charter to the king. But it was not till the peace in 1763, that the province began to prosper; since that time it has rapidly improved.

The history of this country from the period of its discovery to the date of its permanent settlement, is fraught with lessons of the highest importance to mankind. The germs of her subsequent prosperity were already planted; the foundations had been laid, even at this early day, of our present national greatness. It is remarkable that to the vigour of the Anglo-Saxon element is to be traced nearly all successful enterprise and permanent prosperity connected with our origin and progress as a people. It is not less observable that to the self-reliance of the colonists, and to those virtues which constitute them the foremost men of their day, is attributable the unprecedented success which crowned, by the divine favour, their unassisted endeavours.

The grants made by James I. to the London and Plymouth companies, were so defined, at a time when the extent of our borders was unknown, as to occasion interference and conflict from subsequent grants. This was the case with the patents granted to Lord Baltimore and William Penn. Disputes about their

boundaries long subsisted between several of the colonies. Vermont was claimed both by New Hampshire and, New York; and after a long contest, the inhabitants set up, in 1775, a government of their own. Between Connecticut and Pennsylvania the conflict was especially memorable. The charter of Connecticut extended to the South Sea, and settlements were attempted, by those colonists within Penn's borders: the settlers in Pennsylvania soon came in collision, and both parties supported their claims by force of arms. The dispute, in 1782, was decided under Congress in favour of Pennsylvania.

The colonies first settled in America were under the direction of the exclusive corporations in England. It was soon discovered that this mode of government was unfriendly both to their liberty and prosperity. The inhabitants of Massachusetts always manifested an independent spirit, and modelled their constitution according to their own will. During the civil wars of England the parliament, who were Puritans, granted them several immunities in trade, which greatly increased their prosperity above the other colonies. After the restoration, during the latter years of Charles II., and the short reign of James II., they fell under the displeasure of these monarchs. The charter of Massachusetts was vacated by law, and the colony constituted a royal government. James had determined to reduce all the colonies to an immediate dependence on the crown. The prosecution of this plan was prevented by the revolution in 1688. On the accession of King William to the throne of Britain, a new charter was granted to Massachusetts, in which, however, her privileges were much abridged. By this charter, New Plymouth was united with Massachusetts.

Shortly after Virginia became dependent on the crown, Charles I. ascended the throne. The arbitrary measures pursued by him in the government of the colony were rigidly enforced by Governor Hervey. The people, exasperated by this tyranny, seized and sent him prisoner to England. Charles immediately reinstated him in his government, but soon after removed him, and provided for the redress of their grievances. Under the wise administration of Governor Berkely, the colony prospered; and, in 1640, the white inhabitants amounted to twenty thousand souls. These favours from Charles firmly attached the Virginians to his interest. But parliament getting in the ascendant, their privileges were soon curtailed by their enactments, and even a fleet was sent to reduce them to obedience. This interference of parliament in their colonial concerns was as obnoxious to the Virginians as it was new and unheard of. They were usually considered as under the sole jurisdiction of the king. The people were, therefore, highly elated at the restoration of Charles II. But his parliaments imposed further restrictions on their foreign commerce, as well as the home trade between the colonies. The indignation of the people was aroused, and at length broke out into open rebellion. This was in 1676, and the doctrine of independence was then first advanced, which a hundred years later became an open issue and declaration. The insurrection was successful for about seven months, but finally quelled; and the government became still more arbitrary than before.

At this period sectarianism was universally rife. It was the source of civil distraction in Europe, and the colonists of America were by no means free of its baneful influence. The Independents of New England were intolerant and proscriptive to other sects; the Episcopalians of Virginia, in like manner; and the same was true of the adherents of Cromwell in Maryland. The Quakers even suffered martyrdom from the fell spirit of the popular religionists. This denomination, with the Baptists of Rhode Island, and the Roman Catholics of Maryland, appear to have had juster views of the rights of conscience. The religious as well as civil liberty now secured under our government to all men, has doubtless arisen in great part from the firm persistence of liberal-minded men in these days, in disregard of the bigotry so generally dominant. But

whatever may have been the errors of that time—inseparable perhaps from a transitional age—their forecast in other respects was worthy of imitation. The first settlers did not neglect the interests of learning. Schools were early established, colleges founded, and printing encouraged. The nature of the government also led the people to political disquisitions; and by these inquiries they became acquainted with their civil rights.

There were other events in their early history which conspired to change, gradually, the colonial condition to that of free and confederate governments. The hostile incursions of the aboriginal tribes—their jealousy of the rapid growth of the whites, and savage method of attack and warfare—led the colonists, especially of New England, to combine for mutual defence, and stimulated vigorous self-dependence while acting in concert. The Pequod Indians were the most formidable of those tribes; and, after attempting, unsuccessfully, to unite the neighbouring tribes in a league of enmity, began hostilities—burning the settlements on the frontiers, and plundering and scalping the inhabitants. Connecticut raised a body of men and marched against the Indians. They had raised a slight fortification for their defence. This was attacked and carried; and the victory pursued to extermination.

Philip, the chief of the Wampanoag tribe, attacked Massachusetts Bay in 1675. The contest that followed was obstinate and bloody, with a great destruction of property. It lasted upward of a year when, Philip being killed by one of his men, the Indians were vanquished, and the remains of the tribe entirely dispersed.

An Indian war broke out in Maryland in 1542, which lasted several years, attended with the customary evils; and concluded, as usual, by the submission of the savages.

By the middle of the eighteenth century, the period had arrived when the British colonies of North America were to be a united people. The French had settled Louisiana, and were advancing up the Mississippi; and conceived the bold design of uniting these to their possessions in Canada by a chain of forts. This interfered with the English pretensions, of course, which covered the region west as far as the Pacific. The claims of France extended to the Alleghany mountains, and the whole fertile vale of the Mississippi became now the subject of a controversy which could only be decided by the sword. The population of the English colonies was at this time more than one million; of the French, about fifty-two thousand. But the latter were settled compactly, while the population of the former was scattered over a widely extended territory, and under various local governments. Besides, the governor of New France could muster numerous and efficient allies from the Indian tribes which peopled the north and west. They were already fortified from Lake Champlain, and along the St. Lawrence, to the great lakes.

The settlements attempted meanwhile by the English, in the disputed territory, gave occasion for complaint—and the British traders were seized by the French and made prisoners. Dinwiddie, the lieutenant-governor of Virginia, regarding these proceedings as so many acts of aggression on that colony, laid the subject before the assembly, and despatched Major George Washington, then about twenty-one years of age, to the French commandant on the Ohio, requesting him to withdraw from the dominions of his Britannic majesty. The French commandant, in answer, claimed the country as belonging to the king, his master; and expressed his determination to occupy and defend it.

War being now inevitable, the colonies were instructed to oppose the encroachments of the French. Virginia raised three hundred men, put them under the command of Colonel Washington, and ordered them toward the Ohio. They defeated a party of the enemy in May, 1754. The French commandant then

marched against the victors, with upward of nine hundred men. Colonel Washington intrenched his little army, and made a brave defence; but was obliged to surrender. He received honourable terms of capitulation.

At this critical time for the safety of the colonies, a confederation for their common defence was proposed. A meeting of delegates was held at Albany, and a plan of union drawn up. It was dated the 4th of July, 1754. It was not, however, finally adopted.

The necessity of repressing the encroachments of the French, led to the determination to attack their forts on the Ohio, at Niagara, Crown Point, and in Nova Scotia. General Braddock was accordingly sent from Ireland to Virginia, with two regiments of foot. When joined by the forces of the colony, he found himself at the head of twenty-two hundred men. He proceeded against the French posts on the Ohio. He was brave, but wanted other qualifications necessary for the service to which he was appointed. Colonel Washington earnestly begged of him, when the army was marching toward the enemy, to permit him to scour the woods with his rangers, but was contemptuously refused. The general pushed heedlessly forward with the first division, consisting of fourteen hundred men, till he was suddenly attacked by four hundred, chiefly Indians, who lay in ambuscade. His army was defeated, and himself mortally wounded, on the 9th of July, 1775.

The British troops were struck with a panic, and fled in confusion; but the militia, being used to Indian fighting, were not so terrified. The general had disdainfully turned them into the rear, by which means they remained in a body unbroken; and served under Colonel Washington, as a most useful reserve, which covered the retreat of the regulars, and prevented them from being entirely cut to pieces.

The army immediately marched to Philadelphia, and the frontier settlements being exposed to the incursions of the savages, were entirely broken up.

The Massachusetts assembly raised a body of troops, which were sent to Nova Scotia. In a few weeks, and with the loss only of three men, they captured all the forts, and obliged the French inhabitants to remove from the province. They were dispersed through the British colonies, and became incorporated with them. The expedition against Niagara was intrusted to Governor Shirley; but, before the troops were in readiness, the season was so far advanced that the enterprise was relinquished.

Sir William Johnson was to attack Crown Point. The delays and deficiency of preparation prevented the several colonies joining their troops till about August. In the mean time, the enemy having transported forces from France to Canada, marched to meet the provincials, and attacked them; but they were repulsed, with the loss of six hundred men. Notwithstanding this victory, the enemy still kept possession of Crown Point, and fortified Ticonderoga.

The next year, 1756, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, was appointed to the command. It was again determined to reduce Crown Point, Niagara, and Fort Du Quesne. Twenty thousand men were to be raised for this campaign. The troops destined for Crown Point had assembled when Lord Loudon arrived from Britain, as commander-in-chief. Instead of marching against the enemy, the British and American troops differed about their rank in the army. While they were adjusting this point of honour, the French, under Montcalm, advanced against Oswego. This important place, with sixteen hundred prisoners, and a large quantity of stores, fell into his hands. A naval force on the lakes also surrendered. The success of the enemy entirely disconcerted the plan of the campaign, and the British were obliged to confine themselves to defensive operations.

In 1757, a fleet and army rendezvoused at Halifax, in order to attack Cape

Breton, which, at the late peace, had been restored to France. A superior force of the enemy having arrived, the enterprise was abandoned.

Three campaigns were thus wasted away. The generals sent from Britain accused the Americans of timidity, disunion, and of delay in bringing their forces into the field: the Americans warmly expostulated against the pride, avarice, and incapacity of the British officers.

In the year 1758, happily for the British nation, Mr. Pitt was placed at the head of the ministry. The war, which had hitherto languished, was carried on with vigour, and crowned with success.

Three separate expeditions were undertaken in America. General Amherst was ordered to attack Cape Breton. After an obstinate defence, Louisburg once more capitulated, and the fortifications were destroyed.

General Forbes was equally successful against Fort Du Quesne. The French, being too weak to defend the place, abandoned it at the approach of the British. They took possession, and gave it the name of Fort Pitt. This acquisition was of great advantage to the colonies. It gave them the command of a great part of the country in contest, and relieved them from the incursions of the Western Indians, who entered into a treaty with General Forbes.

The expedition against Crown Point failed a second time. This was under General Abercrombie, whose excessive caution in marching to the place of action, gave the French an opportunity of strengthening their works in a very complete manner. The British, in attempting to storm the fort, were repulsed with terrible slaughter, and obliged to retreat. The important post of Frontinac was afterward taken by a detachment under Colonel Bradstreet.

The next year, 1759, the English were everywhere victorious. General Amherst, who had now the chief command, with twelve thousand men, marched to attack Crown Point and Ticonderoga. He found the forts deserted and destroyed. The important post of Niagara was taken by Sir William Johnson. Nothing remained, in order to give the finishing blow to the power of the French in America, but the reduction of Quebec, the capital of their dominions. The enterprise against this formidable city was committed to General Wolfe. After surmounting a combination of difficulties, he made good his landing, and took possession of the ground on the back of the city. The French commander, Montcalm, was no sooner apprized that the British had gained these heights, which they deemed inaccessible, than he resolved to hazard a battle. A most desperate engagement ensued. Montcalm was slain: his second in command shared the same fate. Wolfe, advancing at the head of his grenadiers, received a mortal wound. Struggling in the agonies of death, he heard a voice cry, They run! He asked, who ran? and was informed, the French. He replied, "I die happy," and expired in the arms of victory. Quebec immediately surrendered to the conquerors. Next year the reduction of the whole province of Canada was achieved by Lord Amherst.

After the war had raged near eight years, it was concluded in 1763. Britain had been eminently successful. Besides acquisitions in other parts of the world, she had driven the French out of North America, and gained Florida from the Spaniards. Nearly the whole northern continent was in her possession. The colonies were delivered from the danger of encroachments on their western boundaries: they also gained considerable experience in the art of war; and became acquainted with their own strength and resources. They had not only furnished powerful aid in men and money, for the land service; but were active in fitting out privateers which greatly distressed the French trade. Several colonies had contributed so much beyond their proportion as to receive a reimbursement from the British treasury. Other colonies were tardy in their supplies. The requisitions of the British minister were adopted, modified or rejected by

the colonial legislatures, according to their local views, or the danger with which they were threatened. The want of an uniform system of drawing forth their resources, and directing their operations, was very apparent.

Some have alleged that the inequality of the contributions and exertions, during the war, first suggested to the ministry the idea of taxing America by authority of parliament; and the plans were in contemplation for altering the civil government of the colonies, and introducing episcopacy by a legal establishment. It has been suggested by others, that, during the war, the colonies became so sensible of their own strength and importance, that the seeds of independence were sown; and that they afterward indulged a boldness of inquiry respecting their rights, and a spirit of resistance to British claims, which they would have suppressed, had there been a powerful enemy on their frontiers. The practicability of Britain governing such a growing and widely extended empire, was questioned by her own politicians; and European nations were so jealous of her power, and sensible of their danger from the united exertions of Britain and her colonies, that they gladly seized any opportunity of separating their interests and force, in order to abridge the power of the British nation.

At the peace of 1763, the British nation, though triumphant in every quarter of the globe, found itself loaded with an immense debt. While the minister, Mr. Grenville, was concerting measures for diminishing this debt, he proposed raising a revenue from the American colonies, and of laying taxes on them by the authority of parliament. This was a new claim. Plans of this kind had indeed been proposed in Britain; and some of the colonies wished a mode to be adopted, which should combine their exertions, and equalize their expenses. But since the first settlement of America, the colonies had been allowed to tax themselves. Requisitions to the colonial legislatures, for men and money, had been made by the British minister; and these were, in general, cheerfully complied with. They denied that parliament had any right to grant their money, and argued that they were not represented in that assembly, and had no control over its members; that the parliament, having the power of regulating their commerce, and making it subservient to the interests of Britain, which operated as an indirect tax, could not, consistent with any degree of liberty, proceed to lay direct internal taxes, whereby their property would be taken from them without their consent. They acknowledged themselves subjects of the British crown, but denied the supremacy of parliament. On the other hand, it was contended by Britain, that a great expense had been incurred in defending the colonies; that the late war originated on their account, and terminated for their benefit; that in reason, they ought to pay part of the expense; that the parliament of Britain was supreme, and had the right of taxation over the whole empire. It was an important constitutional question, and after all that was said and written by speculative men, on both sides of the Atlantic, and the schemes of conciliation and union proposed both by Britons and Americans, it may be questioned whether any practicable plan could have been formed, consistent with the unity of the empire, and the preservation of the liberty of the colonies. The pride of an opulent, conquering nation, urged the British to persist in their claims; the love of liberty, of property, and an idea of their own strength, spirited up the Americans to a determined resistance.

The parliament did not immediately proceed to tax the colonies; but they declared, in 1764, that it would be proper to lay certain stamp duties; and that the moneys should be paid into the British treasury. The vote excited a general commotion in America. Petitions to the king, and memorials to the parliament, were drawn up by the colonial assemblies. The house of representatives of Massachusetts passed the following resolutions:—"That the sole right of giving and granting the money of the people of that province, was vested in them, as

their legal representatives; and that the imposition of duties and taxes by the parliament of Great Britain, upon a people who are not represented in the House of Commons, is absolutely irreconcilable with their rights." "That no man can justly take the property of another without his consent;" upon which original principle, the right of representation in the same body that exercises the power of levying taxes, one of the main pillars of the British constitution, is evidently founded.

Several of the colonies had agents in London, in order to transact their business with the government. As so great an opposition was manifested against the stamp act, the minister informed the agents, one of whom was Dr. Franklin, that they were at liberty to suggest any other way of raising money. But the Americans objected not only to the mode, but the principle, and would make no compromise on the subject.

The bill was therefore brought into parliament, and passed by great majorities, and in March, 1765, received the royal assent. The framers of the stamp act flattered themselves, that the confusion which would arise from the disuse of writings, would compel the colonies to use stamp paper, and thereby to pay the tax imposed. Thus they were led to pronounce it a law that would execute itself. It was to take effect the first of November following.

However, Mr. Grenville was not without apprehensions that it might occasion disturbance; to prevent or suppress which, he projected another bill, which was brought in the same session, whereby it was made lawful for military officers, in the colonies, to quarter their soldiers in private houses. Great opposition being made to this bill, as under such a power in the army no one could look upon his house as his own, that part of it was dropped; but still there remained a clause, obliging the several assemblies to provide quarters for the soldiers, and to furnish them with firing, bedding, candles, small beer, rum, and sundry other articles, at the expense of their own provinces.

When intelligence arrived in America that the stamp act was passed, the people were filled with indignation. In several of the large towns riotous meetings took place; buildings were destroyed; the favourers of the act grossly abused; and the stamp-masters obliged to resign. The house of burgesses of Virginia was the first public body that manifested an opposition to it. In sundry bold and decided resolutions, passed in May, 1765, they asserted the exclusive right of the assembly to lay taxes on that colony; and that every attempt to vest such power elsewhere was illegal, unconstitutional, and unjust. The legislatures of several other colonies acted in a similar manner.

Massachusetts suggested the expediency of a congress of delegates. This proposal being agreed to, deputies from ten of the colonies met at New York, in October, 1765. They asserted their rights in strong terms; preferred a petition to the king, and a memorial to parliament. They entered into an association not to import British manufactures till the act should be repealed. In order to avoid using stamps, the courts of justice were shut up, and people settled their controversies by arbitration.

People in England were differently affected by the disturbances in America. Some were for supporting the authority of parliament at all events; but others, especially the merchants and manufacturers, were clamorous for peace. The ministry becoming unpopular, Mr. Grenville was dismissed, and was succeeded by the marquis of Rockingham; and, on the 22d of February, 1766, this obnoxious law was repealed.

This event caused great joy in America. Yet the parliament, at the same time, asserted their supremacy in an act wherein it was declared that they had a power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever. This statute, which, in

fact, deprived the Americans of every right, was overlooked, as being only in words, and which they hoped would never be carried into effect.

Many in Britain were still of opinion that a revenue ought to be raised in America; and were anxiously waiting for an opportunity to effect their design. Another attempt was made; but the plan was changed. Instead of an internal tax, duties were to be levied on certain articles imported. Mr. Charles Townsend, chancellor of the exchequer, in May, 1767, moved in the house of commons for leave to bring in bills for levying a duty upon paper, glass, painters' colours, and tea. Two bills for these purposes received the royal assent.

These acts occasioned fresh disturbances in America. A determined opposition to parliamentary taxation was again manifested. The colonies again entered into a non-importation agreement. In petitions, they prayed for a redress of grievances; and in resolutions, they stated their rights. Parliament seemed, for a while, determined to enforce obedience; but they did not persevere. The British manufacturers were clamorous, because their trade was suffering by the non-importation agreement. The ministry were embarrassed and indecisive, and at length gave assurance of a repeal of those obnoxious laws.

The repeal took place in 1770, except that of three pence a pound on tea. This trifling and ill-judged reservation, prevented a cordial reconciliation, and in a short time produced an open rupture. A temporary calm, however, took place: for, though the duty on tea was still in force, the Americans resolved to evade it, by not importing any upon which it was payable.

The colonists were highly elated in having thus twice defeated the attempts of parliament to tax them. Their non-importation agreements so evidently distressed the manufacturers of Britain, that they imagined she was, in fact, far more dependent upon them, than they were upon her. Doctrines were boldly advanced by some, which tended to question the right of parliament to control their trade; and calculations were made, to show the great sums that this monopoly carried into the British treasury.

Many, however, hoped that the contention between the two countries would now terminate; and that Britain would neither revive her claims, nor the colonies bring their speculations into effect. But the late ferments, though allayed, were not extinguished.

In Massachusetts new troubles broke out. Various causes contributed to keep alive the spirit of discontent in that colony:—Introducing a military force into Boston, with a view to overawe the inhabitants,—stationing vessels of war in the harbour,—making the governor and judges independent of the province,—and establishing a board of commissioners for collecting the revenue to be raised by authority of parliament. The people of New England were also less attached to Britain than those of most of the other colonies; few emigrants had lately come to that part of the continent. They were chiefly descendants of the first settlers. Their ancestors had been persecuted, and banished from Britain; and they now experienced the arbitrary conduct of that country toward themselves.

On the other hand, the inhabitants were looked on by the ministry as a turbulent, factious people, who aimed at independence; and coercive measures only were supposed necessary to secure their obedience.

The discontents in New England had, in several instances, broke out into actual violence; particularly in burning a British armed schooner in Providence river; and in Boston, on the 5th of March, 1770, when a party of the military fired upon, and killed several of the inhabitants, who had previously insulted, threatened, and attacked them. The soldiers were tried, and acquitted of murder. But this event sank deep into the minds of the people; and the anniversary of it was observed with great solemnity for many years.

In 1770, an insurrection broke out in North Carolina, not connected with the

general opposition to Britain. A number of people rose in arms, demanding that the courts of justice should be shut; that the officers of government should resign; and that no taxes should be levied. Governor Tryon marched against the insurgents, and defeated them.

The ministry were disappointed in raising a revenue from tea, in consequence of the American association to import none on which a duty was chargeable. The East India Company also felt the bad effects of the colonial smuggling trade, by the large quantity of tea remaining in their warehouses. They urged the minister, Lord North, to take off the American duty of three pence per pound, and they would pay double the sum on exportation. This offer was rejected; but a drawback was allowed on the tea they should export to the colonies. The company agreed to this plan, and became their own factors. They sent six hundred chests of tea to Philadelphia, the like quantity to New York and Boston, besides what was consigned to other places; and appointed agents for the disposal of the commodity.

In the mean time, the colonists, who well knew what had passed in the mother country, were concerting measures to counteract the views of the British ministry. Town meetings were held in the capital cities of the different provinces; and it was resolved to obstruct the sale of the tea, and even to prevent it from being landed. The captains of the ships which arrived at Philadelphia and New York, being apprized of the determination of the citizens, returned with their cargoes. At Charleston, the tea was landed, but not offered for sale. In Boston, the business terminated in a different manner. The tea ships were prevented from returning; express orders being sent by the governor, to the armed vessels in the bay, to stop every vessel which had not a pass signed by himself. The inhabitants therefore resolved to destroy it. A number of persons, dressed as Indians, went on board the ships, and in about two hours, hoisted out, and broke open three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, the contents of which they threw into the sea. They were not in the least molested, and the whole was conducted with very little tumult. No damage was done to the vessels, or any other property. When the business was finished, the people returned quietly to their habitations. This took place in November, 1773.

These proceedings irritated the ministry. A message from the king to both houses of parliament was presented, in which he particularly mentioned the destruction of the tea. It was determined to punish the Bostonians for their refractory behaviour. In March, 1774, bills were brought into parliament, to shut up the port of Boston, and to transfer the seat of government to Salem,—to new model the government of Massachusetts Bay,—to transport persons charged with crimes, in Massachusetts, to another colony, or even to England, for trial. These bills all received the royal assent. Several respectable members of both houses, reprobated these severe and dangerous proceedings. Petitions were also presented against their being carried into effect. But the ministry were determined to bring the colonies in absolute submission to the authority of Britain.

When intelligence of these acts reached America, the whole continent was in a flame. Though they were levelled against Massachusetts, every colony considered itself included: and that their property and liberty were to be sacrificed to ministerial and parliamentary vengeance: they resolved to make a common cause with the people of New England. In order to obtain a unanimity of measures, it was proposed that a Congress should meet at Philadelphia in September.

The first of June, 1774, was the time appointed for shutting up the port of Boston. That eventful day was kept in many places as a day of mourning. The sympathy of the colonies was also manifested by liberal contributions for the people of that town; many of whom, by the operation of the port bill, were

deprived of their usual means of subsistence. They were considered as suffering in the common cause.

The British ministry, fearing the consequences of the laws that were enacted, ordered a military force to Boston; and General Gage, the commander-in-chief, was appointed governor of Massachusetts. These measures served still further to irritate the people of that province. To be prepared for every event, they began to arm in their own defence, and spent much time in acquiring the military art. These proceedings, and a manifest disposition to resistance, alarmed the general, who thought it necessary, for the safety of his troops, as well as to secure the important post of Boston, to fortify the neck, which afforded the only communication by land between that town and the country.

On the 5th of September, 1774, Congress met at Philadelphia. Twelve colonies sent deputies to this assembly. It was composed of the most influential characters, and was a faithful representation of the people. They published a declaration of rights, in which they claimed an exemption from being taxed by parliament, but submitted to the regulation of their commerce,—they addressed General Gage, and entreated him to forbear hostilities,—entered into a non-importation and non-exportation agreement,—presented an address to the people of Great Britain, and a petition to the king. These papers were all drawn up with an uncommon degree of animation, firmness, and eloquence. After a session of eight weeks, they dissolved themselves; having previously given their opinion, that another Congress should meet in May following, unless their grievances were redressed before that time.

The proceedings of Congress met with the approbation of the people. Though they had only an advisory power, their recommendations were as effectually carried into execution as the laws of the best regulated States. The colonial legislatures, except that of New York, sanctioned their proceedings. Provincial Congresses, and subordinate committees of inspection and observation, for cities, counties, and districts, were chosen by the people. These carried the resolutions of the general Congress into effect. The opposition to Britain now assumed the appearance of a regular system, and all the colonies were apparently moved by one will.

General Gage summoned the legislature of Massachusetts to convene at Salem, in October. He afterward countermanded the summons. But the members assembled, and organized themselves into a provincial Congress. They drew up a plan for the immediate defence of the province, organized the militia, and ordered a select number of them to be ready to march at a minute's warning; collected provisions and ammunition; and voted money to carry their resolutions into effect. Commissioners from New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island met with a committee from Massachusetts, and engaged to assist them in their struggle for freedom.

When the proceedings of the general Congress reached Britain, the first impression seemed favourable to America. Petitions were presented from London, and almost all the manufacturing towns in the kingdom, for a repeal of the obnoxious laws. Lord Chatham introduced a bill, which he hoped would bring about a reconciliation. The ministry rejected this bill, the petition of the British merchants, and the petition from Congress.

At the same time, Lord North gave a sketch of the measures he intended to pursue. He was to send a greater force to America; and to bring in a bill to restrain the foreign trade of the colonies of New England, particularly their fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland, till they returned to their duty. This bill was introduced and passed. Another act also passed, to restrain the commerce of the rest of the colonies, except North Carolina and New York. Great opposition was made to these measures, in both houses of parliament. But it

was replied, that as the colonies had refused to trade with Britain, they ought to be restrained from trading anywhere else.

To bring the nation to unanimity, however, was a desirable object with the ministry. Lord North, to show that he was not averse to conciliation, brought into the House of Commons, on the 20th of February, 1775, what was called his Conciliatory Motion; the substance of which was, that when any colony should tax itself, in such a sum as would be satisfactory, parliament would forbear to tax such colony. This motion passed the house. It was expected to unite the people of Britain, even if it was refused by the Americans. When transmitted to the colonies, they unanimously rejected it, as being unreasonable and insidious.

The ministry immediately ordered a large reinforcement of troops to Boston; and appointed Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, men of great military talents, to accompany them. These troops, joined with those already in America, would make an army of ten thousand men. It was fully believed in Britain, that this powerful force, under the direction of such able generals, would be sufficient to reduce the colonies to submission. The Americans were said in parliament to be cowards, and would not venture to make any serious opposition; or if any military resistance was attempted, a speedy and decisive conquest would be the consequence.

Meanwhile, in the colonies, the spirit of opposition to England had been growing stronger and more determined; and, before the tidings of the late proceedings of parliament could reach America, the indignation of the provincials had been fully aroused by the shock of battle and the spilling of blood.

Being informed that the Americans had collected a magazine of military stores at Concord, a town near Boston, General Gage, in the night of April 18, 1775, detached a force of eight hundred grenadiers, to proceed to Concord and destroy the magazine. Though the utmost secrecy had been observed, the troops found their rapid march heralded by signal guns, and the ringing of church-bells; and when, about sunrise of the 19th, they reached Lexington, some seventy minute-men were discovered in arms upon the green. Major Pitcairn, the English commander, ordered them to disperse. On their refusing to obey, the word was given to fire. At the first discharge eight of the provincials were killed. The rest, after a brief skirmish, were put to flight.

Pressing forward to Concord, the British found the people of that town in arms. They succeeded, however, in destroying the stores. But they were not suffered to return unopposed. While the work of destruction was being carried on, the militia were assembling beyond the north bridge. Attempting to cross into Concord, they were fired upon by a British guard, and two of their number fell dead. The Americans instantly returned the fire, and drove the enemy back with considerable loss.

Pitcairn now gave the word to retreat. It was time. The spirit of the country was aroused. Scarcely had the British begun their flight, rather than march, when they were hotly assailed on all sides, from behind houses, fences, trees, stones, and every place where a man could conceal himself. Their whole route was lined with a deadly and uninterrupted fire.

Fortunately for the English, Lord Percy met them at Lexington, with a fresh detachment of nine hundred men. Breathing a little, they again set forward. The same fatal fire pursued them, almost to the foot of Bunker's Hill, where they arrived late in the evening, staggering with exhaustion, and smarting with the mortification of a bloody defeat.

The battle of Lexington was the signal for war. Flying from colony to colony, the tidings of it called up armies as if by magic. Two days after the fight, no less than twenty thousand provincials were assembled around Boston.

On the 10th of May following, a small party of Vermont and Connecticut militia, led by Ethan Allen, Seth Warner, and Benedict Arnold, succeeded in the bold enterprise of capturing the fortress of Ticonderoga. Many cannon, and a large amount of military stores thus fell into their hands, and proved a valuable acquisition to the forces engaged in the siege of Boston.

The same day the Continental Congress assembled at Philadelphia. Besides a second petition to the king, addresses were voted to the people of Great Britain, to the Assembly of Jamaica, and to the inhabitants of Canada. Having thus made their last appeals to the king and people of Great Britain, Congress next voted for the equipment and organization of a continental army, twenty thousand strong. To defray the necessary expenses, bills of credit were issued to the amount of three millions of dollars. The happy selection was next made of George Washington, then a delegate from Virginia, to take the chief command of the proposed army.

While Congress was yet in session, tidings were received from the East, that a second battle had been fought. Having reason to apprehend that General Gage designed to issue from the town, and penetrate into the interior of Massachusetts, the Americans determined to anticipate such a movement by fortifying Dorchester Neck and Bunker's Hill. For the latter service, one thousand men were detached, late in the evening of June the 16th, under the command of Colonel Prescott. Through some mistake, the provincials, instead of occupying Bunker's, passed silently beyond it to Breed's Hill, an eminence much nearer to Boston, and overlooking it. Here, by the dawn of the next day, they had thrown up a small but formidable redoubt. Though a heavy cannonade was immediately directed against them from the British ships in the harbor, and from a battery on Copp's Hill, at the northern end of Boston, the Americans cheerfully pursued their labour, seemingly unconcerned at the iron shower of bombs and balls which fell around them incessantly.

Deeming it absolutely necessary that the provincials should be driven from the position they had so boldly taken, Gage, at noon, detached ten companies of grenadiers, ten of light infantry, and a body of artillery, who, crossing to Moreton's Point, were there drawn up in battle array, by Generals Howe and Pigot. Notwithstanding this demonstration, the Americans remained firm and undismayed. Perceiving this, the English refrained from advancing, till the arrival of reinforcements from Boston.

About three o'clock in the afternoon, the British, having formed in two lines, advanced to storm the American redoubt, under cover of a heavy discharge of field-pieces and howitzers. As they marched slowly forward, Charlestown, a handsome and flourishing village, was set on fire, by the orders of Gage. The conflagration shed a terrific splendour over the scene, which thousands of anxious spectators witnessed from the heights of Boston and the surrounding country.

There was a silence like that of death in the American line, till the enemy had advanced within less than one hundred yards. Then it was that the provincials poured in their fire. Their aim was steady and deliberate, and singularly fatal. The British wavered, broke, and fled; but, being rallied, again resumed their advance, to be a second time driven back, by an equally deadly discharge. Forced on by the swords of their officers, they moved to the charge a third time. The powder of the Americans was now almost exhausted; their line was assailed on three sides at once; and they found it impossible to hold their position longer. Clubbing their muskets, they retreated slowly, fighting every foot of the way, across Charlestown Neck.

Advancing as far as Bunker's Hill, the British there encamped, being too exhausted to improve their dear-bought victory, in which three thousand of their veteran troops had with difficulty overcome the resistance of fifteen hundred

undisciplined American farmers. Nothing could have been more disastrous to their prospects than the result of this conflict. Neither inspirited by brilliant triumph, nor exasperated by shameful defeat, their troops were depressed by a success, of which it would evidently require but a few more such instances to insure their destruction.

In the following July, Washington appeared in the camp before Boston, and hastened to organize and discipline the army under his command. Keeping up a close siege of the British for nearly a year, in March, 1776, he determined on attempting to dislodge them from the town. On the evening of the 4th, a strong detachment of provincials, under General Thomas, succeeded in taking possession of and fortifying the heights of Dorchester, by which the complete command of Boston was gained. General Howe, who had succeeded Gage, had no other alternative than to evacuate the town, or dislodge the Americans from their new position. Failing in an attempt to do the latter, he prepared to embark his troops and yield the possession of Boston to the provincials. His retreat was not annoyed, as he had threatened, if it were, to burn the town. On the 17th of March, his fleet set sail for Halifax. Leaving a suitable force at Boston, Washington hastened with his main body toward New York, whither Howe was supposed to have sailed.

In the mean time, Congress had decided upon striking a sturdy blow in Canada. At the head of a little more than a thousand troops, General Montgomery, a young and high-spirited officer, succeeded in forcing his way to Montreal, which he took unresisted possession of, in November, 1775. Though the season was far advanced, he then pushed down the St. Lawrence, determined to attempt the conquest of Quebec.

Against that fortress, Washington had previously detached eleven hundred men, under the command of Colonel Benedict Arnold. Starting from the neighbourhood of Boston, Arnold ascended the Kennebec, and then struck out into the untravelled wildernesses of Maine, designing to reach Canada from a direction entirely unexpected. After one of the most memorable, because one of the most toilsome and hazardous, marches on record, he struck the St. Lawrence at a point nearly opposite Quebec. If he could have crossed the river at once, he might have captured the city, notwithstanding the exhaustion of his troops, whose original number had been greatly reduced by desertion. But, having received warning of his approach, the commandant at Quebec had taken care to remove all the canoes from that side of the St. Lawrence.

Yet, after some delay, Arnold succeeded in crossing, in spite of the precautions of the British. Landing where the gallant Wolfe had landed sixteen years previously, he drew up his little army before Quebec, and summoned it to surrender. But his flag was fired upon, and the garrison would hold no communication with him; and, conscious of his inability to maintain a siege, he withdrew up the river to Point aux Trembles. Here he was presently joined by Montgomery, who took command of their united forces, and together they proceeded to make one more attempt to capture Quebec.

Finding that his artillery produced no impression upon the walls of that city, Montgomery at length decided on carrying the place by a bold assault. The attempt was made on the 31st December, in the midst of a driving snow-storm. Though conducted with the utmost gallantry, it failed—Montgomery being slain, and Arnold seriously wounded. From this period, the operations of the American army in Canada began to be attended by disaster; and, in the course of a few months, almost every advantage it had gained was lost, seemingly beyond recovery.

In the spring of 1776, a remarkable debate took place in the British house of lords, on a motion of the Duke of Grafton for pacifying America by concessions.

The motion was voted down by a large majority; the supporters of the ministry declaring that the season for conciliation was past, and that no alternative was left to America save absolute conquest or unconditional submission. The provincials had now to choose between the dignity of independent freemen, and the degradation of pardoned rebels. That the first of these would be their choice, was manifested by the numerous petitions which began to flow to Congress, praying for the open declaration of American independence.

Preferring to follow, rather than to precede, public opinion on a question of such transcendent importance, Congress prudently waited a more general and deliberate expression of the national desire. At length, a majority of the thirteen confederated States began to exhibit symptoms of their anxiety to sever the political bonds which united them with the English crown. Though the unfortunate termination of the Canadian campaign was by this time either known or surmised, it did not stifle, but rather gave force to, the expression of the almost general desire that Congress should speedily take some action with regard to the subject of independence. One or two of the provincial assemblies, it is true, had as yet avoided all allusion to the question; while as many more had openly expressed their disapprobation of any measure approaching to a declaration of the independence of the colonies. But the prominent friends of independence saw that the time was at hand when this momentous design must be either boldly avowed, or given up altogether; they observed, that, in general, the chief objections brought against it were rather as to the time than to the measure itself, and they fully believed that a vast majority of the people, however hopeful or desirous of a reconciliation with the mother country, would rather give up such views than cherish them in opposition to the settled and general policy of America.

To render certain the existence of such a majority, the leading patriots went actively to work with that powerful engine, the public press. Gazettes, newspapers, and pamphlets, filled with stirring appeals, and sound arguments in favour of the separation of the colonies from Great Britain, were widely disseminated. Prominent among the pamphlets produced on this occasion was one entitled "Common Sense," and written by Thomas Paine, an Englishman, but lately arrived in America. Showing the absolute necessity for independence, and pointing out the advantages of it, he ridiculed hereditary succession, and heaped reproach and disgrace on monarchical governments. Though not remarkably learned, Paine was a bold, shrewd, and sarcastic writer, and the effect of his essays on the American people and mind was well-nigh wonderful.

On the 22d of April, 1776, the provincial Assembly of North Carolina empowered its delegates in Congress to concur with the others in the establishment of independence. The Virginia Assembly went still further, and instructed its delegates to propose that measure.

Accordingly, on the 7th of June, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, formally proposed in Congress that the confederated states should declare themselves free and independent. The debate that ensued was a lengthy and spirited one, and elicited such a display of wisdom, genius, and eloquence, on the question of the liberty and happiness of mankind, as has been but seldom witnessed by the national assemblies of the world.

At the head of the party in favour of independence, was the fearless and energetic John Adams, of Massachusetts. John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania, led the opposition. Dickinson was an able man, and spoke eloquently against the measure, having been so instructed by the Assembly of the colony he represented in Congress. Still, his opposition was founded upon an honest conviction that a declaration of independence was as unnecessary as it would be

wrong. Subsequently, however, he came fearlessly forward, and united his fortunes to those of the American patriots.

On the 10th of June, the resolution of Lee was adopted, in a committee of the whole house, by a bare majority. The question was then postponed till the 1st of July. In the mean time steps were taken to procure the assent of all the colonies. On the appointed day, all agreed to the measure except Delaware and Pennsylvania.

At length, on the 4th of July, a "Declaration of Independence," drawn up by Thomas Jefferson, of Virginian, was reported to Congress, and, after being slightly amended, received the almost unanimous sanction of that body. It was then signed by each of the several members of Congress, and subsequently read to the people from the door of the state-house in Philadelphia. It was welcomed throughout the colonies with cheers, the ringing of bells, the firing of cannon, and with every expression of rejoicing, and of a determination to adhere to the principles it so boldly avowed.

THE

UNITED STATES MANUAL.

Declaration of Independence,

JULY 4th, 1776.

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America, in Congress assembled.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their

duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:—

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissólutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise—the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states—for that purpose obstructing the laws of naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws—giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us ;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states ;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world ;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent ;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury ;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences ;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies ;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the *forms* of our governments ;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free a people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts, by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have

reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:—

JOHN HANCOCK,
President and Deputy from Massachusetts.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Wripple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas McKean.

MARYLAND.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca.
Thomas Stone,
Chas. Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jr.,
Thomas Lynch, Jr.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.
Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

Biographies of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence.

JOHN HANCOCK.

The boldly written name of John Hancock appears first on the list of those who dared to append their signatures to the immortal Declaration of Independence. This distinguished man was the son of the Rev. John Hancock, of Braintree, Massachusetts, and he was born at that place in 1737. He enjoyed the advantages of an excellent education, graduating at Harvard College, in 1754. He then entered the counting-house of his uncle, Thomas Hancock, as a clerk. At this period he discovered no striking qualities, from which his friends could predict his future distinction. On the death of his uncle, young Hancock inherited a large fortune, and soon after he began his brilliant career as a public man.

He was first chosen selectman of the town of Boston, and, in the year 1766, he was elected, with Otis, Cushing, and Samuel Adams, a member of the general assembly of the province.

On taking his seat, Mr. Hancock was flattered by marks of confidence and distinction: he was generally chosen on committees, and was chairman upon some occasions when the deliberations involved the highest interests of the community. As soon as the controversy with Great Britain grew warm, and all hopes of accommodation had vanished, he entered into the non-importation agreement, and all other acts which were expedient to keep inviolate the liberties of the people.

In consideration of his zeal and ability, he was, in 1774, called upon to preside over the deliberations of the provincial assembly.

On the 12th of June, 1775, General Gage issued a proclamation offering pardon to all the rebels, excepting John Hancock and Samuel Adams, "whose offences" were declared to be "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." Mr. Hancock at this time occupied a seat in the Continental Congress, and before the close of its session, that body elected him to preside over its deliberations, in place of Peyton Randolph, who was under the necessity of returning home. In this honourable position he continued during the exciting debates upon

the Declaration of Independence; and when that noble instrument was adopted, his signature took the lead, as that of the President of the Congress.

In October, 1777, ill health compelled Mr. Hancock to retire from his post. On that occasion he received the thanks of Congress for his unremitted attention, and steady impartiality in discharging the duties of his office. But his fellow-citizens would not permit him to retire altogether from the theatre of public events. After the adoption of a State constitution in Massachusetts, in October, 1780, he was chosen first governor.

He was annually continued in that office until the year 1785, when he resigned; and after an intermission of two years, during which he had been succeeded by Mr. Bowdoin, was re-elected, and remained in the chair until the close of his life.

In 1787, he was chosen president of the State convention, which met to ratify and adopt the federal constitution; and his influence and agency in promoting its adoption may be mentioned with the objects which most recommend him to esteem among his contemporaries, and which entitle him to the regard of posterity. The latter years of his administration were very popular, on account of the public tranquillity. The federal government became the source of so much prosperity, that the people were easy and happy. He died suddenly on the 8th of October, 1793, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

Mr. Hancock was above the middle size, of excellent proportion of limbs, and of extreme benignity of countenance. He was easy in his address, polished in manners, affable and liberal; and, as president of Congress, he exhibited a dignity, impartiality, quickness of conception, and constant attention to business, which secured him respect. Of his talents it is sufficient evidence, that, in the various stations to which his fortune had elevated him in the republic, he acquitted himself with an honourable distinction and capacity. As an orator, he spoke with ease and propriety on every subject. In private life, he was charitable and generous—indeed, there are few lives, either ancient or modern, that afford, of disinterested generosity, more frequent and illustrious examples. From his private benevolence, a thousand families received their daily bread; and there is perhaps no individual mentioned in history, who has expended a more ample fortune in promoting the liberties of his country. He was also a generous benefactor of Harvard College.

To the last his life was characterized by patriotism, practical ability, and generous munificence.

JOSIAH BARTLETT.

Josiah Bartlett was one of the earliest and most influential advocates of the Declaration. He was born at Amesbury, Massachusetts, in November, 1729. After receiving the rudiments of a classical education in his native town, he commenced the study of physic under Dr. Ordway, and, at the age of twenty-one, he began the practice of his profession at Kingston, New Hampshire. The success of the young physician was almost immediate; but he was destined for public service in another field. Having zealously espoused the cause of the people, and displayed great courage and decision, he was elected, in 1765, to represent the town of Kingston in the provincial assembly. This mark of confidence was annually renewed until the Revolution.

During the momentous period preceding the bursting of the storm, Dr. Bartlett acted a conspicuous part among the patriots. He was appointed a delegate to the general Congress of 1774, to aid in the adoption of such measures as would secure the rights, liberties, and privileges of the colonies, and restore harmony between the two countries. The opening of the year 1775, instead of a reconciliation, brought about those portentous events which resulted in a revolution. In the mean time, he was a member of the committee of safety, and of the provincial convention, and was actively engaged in matters relating to the welfare of the people.

On the 23d of August, 1775, Dr. Bartlett was chosen a delegate to Congress, in the place of I. Sullivan, Esq., and took his seat accordingly. On the 23d of January, 1776, he was again re-elected to Congress, and on the 12th of June was appointed one of the committee to prepare and digest the form of confederation to be entered into between the colonies. In the debates which preceded the signing of the Declaration of Independence, he firmly advocated its adoption; and on the memorable 4th of July, on taking the sentiments of the house, was the first called upon: he answered in the affirmative, and was followed in rotation by the members from the other States.

He was re-elected to the Congress which met at York, Pennsylvania, in 1778.

In 1782, Dr. Bartlett was appointed a justice of the superior court, which office he held until he was appointed chief justice, in 1788. Still higher honours awaited him.

In 1788, he was a member of the convention of New Hampshire

which adopted the present constitution. In 1789, he was chosen a senator to Congress. In 1793, he was elected the first governor of the State, which office he filled with his accustomed promptitude and fidelity, until his infirm state of health obliged him to retire wholly from public business. This eminent man and distinguished patriot closed his earthly career on the 19th of May, 1795.

Dr. Bartlett was remarkable for his quick, penetrating intellect, extensive information, and promptitude and decision of action. Rigid in the performance of his duties, he exacted the same strictness from others. The high positions with which he was honoured were the just rewards of his merits, and his faithful performance of their duties was generally acknowledged.

WILLIAM WHIPPLE.

No man among the illustrious signers of the "Declaration," was more remarkable for the variety of his fortunes than WILLIAM WHIPPLE, who, from a mere cabin-boy, rose to a lofty position as a statesman and soldier. He was born at Kittery, Maine, in 1730. Receiving a very little education, he adopted a seafaring life, at an early age. In 1759, he abandoned the sea, and commenced business in connection with his brother, in Portsmouth, New Hampshire. There he gradually attained a high reputation for energy, judgment, and integrity, and was elected to several responsible offices.

Mr. Whipple was among the first to advocate resistance to the exactions of the British Parliament.

When the disputes between the two countries were approaching to a crisis, he was, in the year 1775, chosen one of the provincial committee of safety for the town of Portsmouth. In 1776, he was chosen a delegate to the general Congress, which met at Philadelphia, and accordingly took his seat in that august body on the 29th of February. He continued to be re-elected to that distinguished situation in the years 1777, 1778, and 1779, and applied himself with great diligence and ability to the discharge of its duties, when the military services which he rendered during that period permitted him to be an acting member of the New Hampshire delegation. In the middle of September, 1779, he finally retired from Congress, after having attended, without the least intermission, at his post of duty, from the 5th of the preceding month of November.

The memorable day which gave birth to the Declaration of Independence, afforded in the case of Mr. Whipple a striking example of the uncertainty of human affairs, and the triumphs of perseverance. The cabin-boy, whose ambition once centred in inscribing his name as commander upon a crew-list, now affixed his signature to a document which has embalmed it for posterity.

In the year 1777, Mr. Whipple was called upon to act in untried scenes, and exchange his political for a military character. On the invasion of General Burgoyne, Mr. Whipple and John Stark were appointed brigadier-generals, with orders to embody the militia, and to stop the progress of the enemy. The latter, with the second brigade, proceeded to Bennington, (where the enemy had a large body of troops under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Baum,) attacked their works, and put them to flight. Soon after this victory, General Whipple marched with the first brigade to join the standard of General Gates. In the desperate battles of Stillwater and of Saratoga, the troops of General Whipple gained a large share of honour due to the American army. The consequence of these engagements was the surrender of General Burgoyne.

In 1780, immediately after his retirement from Congress, he was elected a member of the State legislature, to which office he was repeatedly chosen, and continued to enjoy the confidence and approbation of his fellow-citizens. In 1782, he was appointed a judge of the superior court, which office he held until his death, which happened November 28, 1785, in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

In General Whipple the want of education was supplied by the force of a quick and comprehensive mind. Close observation rendered his knowledge of men and things more accurate than that of the mass of men, and an indomitable will enabled him to triumph over all the obstacles fortune threw in his path to renown. His career is well worthy of the study of American youth.

MATTHEW THORNTON.

Some of the most enthusiastic patriots of the Revolution were natives of a foreign soil. Among these was Matthew Thornton, who was born in Ireland, in 1714. A few years after his birth, his parents emigrated to America, and settled in Maine. Thence they removed to Massachusetts, where Matthew, being designed for one

of the learned professions, received an academical education. At the proper age, he commenced the study of medicine at Leicester, Massachusetts, and having completed the preparatory course, he began the practice of his profession at Londonderry, New Hampshire. There his ability and extensive information soon secured him a lucrative practice, and he became possessed of a considerable estate.

After filling several important offices, Dr. Thornton was elected, in 1776, a delegate to Congress to represent the State of New Hampshire. He took his seat after the signing of the Declaration of Independence; but he asked and obtained permission to affix his signature to the glorious roll, thus giving a notable proof of his patriotic zeal. In 1779, Dr. Thornton removed to Exeter, New Hampshire, and there, upon a fine estate, he resided during the remainder of his life, more occupied with his delightful gardens than with either physic or politics. Yet he continued to manifest a deep interest in the welfare of the country. He was the unwavering disciple of Washington, and enjoyed the confidence of that illustrious patriot to the end. Dr. Thornton died at Newburyport, Massachusetts, while on a visit to his daughters, June 24, 1803, at the age of eighty-nine.

Dr. Thornton possessed a large, commanding person; his complexion was dark, and his black eyes had a stern, penetrating glance. Upon his grave may be seen a marble slab, containing his name, age, and the brief, but sufficient epitaph—"An Honest Man.'

SAMUEL ADAMS.

The two Adamses, of Massachusetts, were always the most prominent men in the Continental Congress. Of the two, John Adams was the greater orator, but Samuel Adams commanded the most extensive influence. The latter was born in Boston, Massachusetts, September 27, 1722. Being descended from a very respectable family, he enjoyed the advantage of a thorough education. In the years 1740 and '43, Mr. Adams graduated at Harvard College, and received the respective degrees of bachelor and master of arts.

On the latter occasion, he proposed the following question for discussion: "Whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the commonwealth cannot be otherwise preserved." He main-

tained the affirmative of this proposition, and thus evinced, at this early period of his life. his attachment to the liberties of the people. Mr. Adams was known as a political writer during the administration of Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, to whom he was opposed, as he conceived the union of so much military and civil power in one man to be dangerous.

When the *stamp act* was the subject of conversation, of public resentment, and succeeding tumults, Mr. Adams was one of those important characters who appeared to oppose it at every step. Nor were the taxes upon tea, oil, and colours less odious to the Americans than the *stamp act;* on this occasion he boldly opposed the right of Great Britain to tax the colonies, in a remonstrance of some length, which is the first public document we have on record denying the right of the British Parliament to tax the colonies without their own consent.

In consequence of the act of imposing duties in 1767, Mr. Adams suggested a non-importation agreement with the merchants, which was agreed to and signed by nearly all of them in the province. At a very early period of the controversy with Great Britain, he suggested the importance of establishing committees of correspondence. This was first adopted by Massachusetts, on a motion of Mr. Adams, at a public town-meeting in Boston. The plan was afterward followed by all the provinces. He was afterward the first to suggest a congress of the colonies.

After every method had been tried to induce Mr. Adams to abandon the cause of his country, he was proscribed, in connection with John Hancock, by a general proclamation issued by Governor Gage, June 12, 1775.

In 1774, he was elected a member of the general Congress. In 1776, on the 4th of July, he was one of those patriots, who fearlessly pledged their "lives," their "fortunes," and their "honour," to the maintenance of the Declaration of Independence.

Our patriots, in their progress to independence, had successfully encountered many formidable obstacles; but in the year 1777, still greater difficulties arose, at the prospect of which some of the stoutest hearts began to falter. At this critical juncture there were but twenty-eight members who attended the Congress at Philadelphia. With reference to it, Mr. Adams was said to remark, "It was the smallest, but the truest Congress they ever had."

In 1779, he was appointed by the State convention one of the committee to prepare and report a form of government for Massachusetts. At the close of the war he opposed a peace with Great

Britain, unless the Northern States retained their full privileges in the fisheries.

In 1787, he was chosen a member of the Massachusetts convention for the ratification of the constitution of the United States. He made several objections to it, which were afterward removed by its being altered to his wishes. In 1789, he was elected lieutenant-governor of the State of Massachusetts, and continued to fill that office till 1794, when he was elected governor. He was annually re-elected till 1797, when his age and infirmities induced him to retire from public office. He died October 3, 1803, aged eighty-one years.

The character of Samuel Adams was strongly marked. A firmer man never lived. When Governor Hutchinson was asked by a friend why Mr. Adams was not purchased from the opposition by an office, he replied, "Such is the obstinacy and inflexible disposition of the man, that he never can be conciliated by any office or gift whatever." In political principle, as in feeling, he continued to the end, a thorough democrat, and his love of country was as unswerving as his integrity. He was more distinguished as a writer than an orator, and more remarkable for the profundity of his thoughts than for any felicity of expression. His mere suggestions had more effect than elaborate orations. His person was majestic and dignified; but like most men of really heroic soul, he possessed a temper as mild and sunny as it was determined. Samuel Adams will be remembered as one who did as much for the independence of his country as any civilian could, and as one of the purest men of his age.

JOHN ADAMS.

A BIOGRAPHY of JOHN ADAMS will be found in another portion of this work, which includes the lives and administrations of the Presidents of the United States.

ROBERT TREAT PAINE.

Robert Treat Paine was distinguished in both literature and politics. He was the son of a merchant, and was born in Boston in 1731. Receiving the advantages of an excellent education, he was graduated at Harvard College, and then, as the fortune of his father had been greatly reduced, he turned his attention to teaching a public school. In this way he contributed to the support of his parents. Mr. Paine also made a voyage to Europe with the view of acquiring ampler means for their maintenance.

Having studied theology, Mr. Paine, in 1755, acted as chaplain to the forces in the northern provinces.

Not long afterward, however, he devoted his attention to the law, and, during the prosecution of his studies, again kept a school for his support. On being admitted to the bar, he established himself at Taunton, in the county of Bristol, where he resided for many years. In 1762, he was chosen a delegate from that town to the convention called by the leading men of Boston, in consequence of the abrupt dissolution of the general court by Governor Barnard. In 1770, he conducted the prosecution, on the part of the crown, in the absence of the attorney-general, in the celebrated trial of Captain Preston and his men, for the part which they acted in the well-known Boston massacre. The way in which he discharged that duty gave him great reputation.

In 1773, Mr. Paine was elected a representative to the general assembly from Taunton. He was afterwards chosen a member of the Continental Congress which met at Philadelphia in 1774. The following year he was re-elected, and rendered important services as chairman of the committee named for the purpose of introducing the manufacture of saltpetre, which was then but imperfectly understood, while the colonies were suffering for the want of gunpowder; also as a member of a committee for the encouragement of the manufacture of cannon and other implements of war. In 1776, '77, and '78, he was also in Congress; and, in the intervals of their sessions, filled several important offices in Massachusetts. In 1780, he was sent to the convention which met in order to deliberate respecting a constitution for that commonwealth, and of the committee which framed the instrument he was a conspicuous member. Under the government which was organized, he was appointed attorney-general. This office he held until 1790, when he was raised to the bench of the

supreme court, where he continued to sit until 1804. He was then seventy-three years old. He died May 11, 1814, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

Mr. Paine was chiefly distinguished for his legal attainments and for the strict fidelity with which he discharged the duties of attorney and judge. But his literary productions evince a delicate fancy and a fine command of language. He was a vigorous political writer, and advocated the independence of his country with much power. He founded the American Academy in Massachusetts, and was its superintendent up to the time of his death.

ELBRIDGE GERRY.

As a bold and decided patriot and statesman, ELBRIDGE GERRY took a foremost rank before and after the Revolution. He was the son of a merchant, and was born at Marblehead, Massachusetts, July 17, 1774.

He was graduated at Harvard College, in 1762, and subsequently engaged in the same business with his father, at Marblehead. In the controversy between Great Britain and the colonies he early took a warm interest; and was elected, in 1772, representative from his native town in the general court, or legislature, of Massachusetts. From this period he continued in public life, almost without intermission. His spirit was nourished by close communion with the Adamses, the Hancocks, and the Warrens. In their private meetings at Boston, these patriots concerted resistance to the arbitrary measures of the mother country, and jointly laboured for this purpose in the exercise of their public duty; and, when separated, they constantly wrote to each other with the same object.

In the general court, though one of the youngest of the assembly, Mr. Gerry was placed on the most important committees of correspondence, and distinguished himself in the principal debates. He was next a member of the famous convention at Concord, a provincial congress of Massachusetts, which at once virtually destroyed the royal authority in that State. He was an efficient member of the committees of appeal and safety; and, on the night preceding the battle of Lexington, he narrowly escaped capture as one of a "rebel" committee of the provincial Congress. After the sword was drawn, he was placed at the head of a committee for raising the necessary supplies.

Mr. Gerry first proposed, in the provincial Congress of Massachusetts, the preparation of a law for encouraging and fitting out of armed vessels, and establishing a court for the trial and condemnation of prizes, and was chairman of the committee appointed for that purpose. This was the first actual avowal of offensive hostility against the mother country, and the first effort to establish an American naval armament. John Adams called it "Gerry's law," and described it as "one of the boldest, most dangerous, and most important measures in the history of the new world."

In November, 1775, courts were established by the authority of the province of Massachusetts, and the lucrative post of maritime judge was offered to Mr. Gerry, but declined, lest it should obstruct the performance of his general political duties. In the beginning of 1776, he was elected a delegate from Massachusetts to the Continental Congress. His reputation occasioned his being placed on all the committees of high importance. From his first entrance into Congress until the organization of the treasury board, in 1780, he was generally chairman of the committee of the treasury. Toward the end of the year 1779, he was appointed head of the commission chosen by Massachusetts to meet delegates from other States at Philadelphia, for the purpose of devising some corrective for the sad condition of the currency. When the treasury board was formed, he was made its presiding officer.

In February, 1780, a measure of Congress, with respect to the assessment of supplies from the several States, gave so much umbrage to Mr. Gerry, as the representative of Massachusetts, that he left his seat and returned home. While absent, he was selected by Congress as a member of one of their usual committees to visit the army. Yielding to the solicitations of friends, and satisfied, at length, with the measures which were adopted on the subject of his remonstrance, he resumed his station in the national councils in 1783. When the definitive treaty was laid before them in that year, those members who had signed the Declaration of Independence, of whom only three had remained—Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Gerry, and Mr. Ellery—were appointed first on the committee to which it was referred.

In 1784, Mr. Gerry was re-elected a member of Congress; and it is said that, at the age of less than forty-two years, he had been longer a member of that assembly than any other man in it. In 1787, he was chosen a delegate to the convention which met at Philadelphia for the purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation. It is well known that great difference of opinion existed in that body,

and several members refused to affix their signatures to the constitution adopted by the convention. Among these was Mr. Gerry. For a short time his popularity suffered severely by the course which he pursued; but, in 1789, he was elected a member of Congress, and remained in that station for four years, during which time he lent his aid freely to the support of the constitution since it had received the sanction of the people. On one occasion, indeed, not long after taking his seat, he gave it as his opinion, on the floor of the house, "that, the federal constitution having become the supreme law of the land, the salvation of the country depended on its being carried into effect."

After resigning his seat in Congress, Mr. Gerry retired into private life, and resided at Cambridge until 1797, when he was appointed to accompany General Pinckney and Mr. Marshall on a special mission to France, for the purpose of preventing the threatened interruption of the peaceful relations existing between that country and the United States. The French Directory for some time delayed to recognise them, and, in the spring of 1798, ordered Marshall and Pinckney to quit the territories of France, but invited Gerry to remain and continue the negotiation. He refused to do the latter, but consented to remain in order to prevent a rupture between the two countries. This course brought upon him great censure in the United States at the time; but, in the words of President Adams, "he alone discovered and furnished the evidence that X, Y, and Z were employed by Talleyrand; and he alone brought home the direct, formal, and official assurances upon which the subsequent commission proceeded, and peace was made." In October, 1798, Mr. Gerry returned home, and, at the request of the democratic party of Massachusetts, became their candidate for the chair of governor of the State. In 1801, he was again a candidate for the office, but at both periods his opponent was chosen. In 1810, he was a third time a candidate, and was chosen, after a violent contest. The following year he was re-elected, but in 1812 he was defeated. In the same year, he was chosen Vice-President of the United States. He did not long discharge the duties of the office. As he was proceeding to the senate-house, at Washington, "a sudden extravasation of blood took place upon the lungs, and terminated his life within twenty minutes, almost without a struggle, and apparently without pain." Over his remains a monument of white marble has been erected by Congress.

Mr. Gerry possessed a keen, penetrating intellect, was notably sagacious as a diplomatist, and bold and influential as a legislator. He

favoured a strong, central government, but still supported some of the doctrines of the "state rights" party. Popular, or unpopular, he was always a devoted patriot.

STEPHEN HOPKINS.

The signature of Stephen Hopkins will attract attention, for it seems as if written with a palsied hand. But there was no palsied patriotism about the heart of the delegate from Rhode Island. This distinguished statesman was born in that part of Providence which now forms the town of Scituate, in March, 1707. After receiving a common school education, he pursued his father's occupation of farming until 1742, when he removed to Providence.

In 1732, Mr. Hopkins was chosen to represent Scituate in the general assembly, and in 1741, he was elected speaker of that body. In the following year he engaged in mercantile business at Providence, and after he had resided in the town a few months he was chosen to represent it in the assembly, of which he was again made speaker. His advancement in office was rapid, as his energy and ability were generally acknowledged. In 1751, he was appointed chief-justice of the superior court of Rhode Island. In 1754, he was appointed a commissioner from that colony to the convention which met at Albany for the purpose of securing the friendship of the Five Nations of Indians in the approaching French war, and establishing a union between the colonies. In 1756, he was elected Governor of Rhode Island, and he continued to hold that office, with the exception of three years, until 1767, when he retired, in order to terminate a party dispute by which the colony was torn.

When the disputes between the colonies and the mother country began, Mr. Hopkins took an active and decided part, supporting the cause of his countrymen with power and effect. He wrote a pamphlet advocating the rights and claims of the colonies, entitled, "The Rights of the Colonies Examined."

In 1774, he was chosen a delegate to the general Congress which was to meet at Philadelphia, and the next year was a second time appointed chief-justice of the superior court of the province. He was re-elected to Congress in 1775 and in 1776. His signature to the Declaration of Independence is indicative of a tremulous hand, owing to a nervous affection, which compelled him, when he wrote, to guide his right hand with his left. In 1778, he was a fourth time

chosen a member of Congress, where he was of particular service to the committees appointed to fit out armed vessels, and to devise ways and means for furnishing the colonies with a naval armament, and in the deliberations on the rules and orders for the regulation of the navy, in consequence of his intimate acquaintance with the business of shipping. He died July 13, 1785, at the age of seventy-eight.

Mr. Hopkins was almost entirely self-taught, and yet his acquirements were very extensive. As a speaker, although usually calm, he was always pertinent and effective; and as a writer upon political questions, he was clear and forcible. He excelled as a mathematician, and was a member of the American Philosophical Society.

WILLIAM ELLERY.

The colleague of Stephen Hopkins was William Ellery, who was born at Newport, Rhode Island, December 22, 1727.

He entered Harvard College at the age of sixteen, and left it in his twentieth year with the reputation of a sound scholar. After studying the law for the regular term, he began the practice, and continued it successfully during twenty years. The part which he took with his native State, in promoting resistance to the mother country, occasioned his election to the Congress of 1776. Of this body he was a zealous, spirited, and most serviceable member. His dwelling-house at Newport, and other portions of his property, were destroyed by the British army, under General Pigot.

Mr. Ellery continued a member of Congress until the year 1785. Soon after this period he accepted the office of chief-justice of the superior court of Rhode Island. When the present federal government was organized, he accepted from General Washington the collectorship of the customs for the town of Newport—a post which he filled during the remainder of his estimable life. This venerable man died at the age of ninety-two, February 15, 1820. He expired without sickness or pain, reading Cicero *De Officiis*, in his arm-chair.

Mr. Ellery was distinguished for the excellence of his heart and the vigour of his mind. Under all his misfortunes during the Revolutionary struggle he remained firm in devotion to his country, and adhered to his pledge of "life, fortune, and sacred honour," even in the gloomiest days of that glorious fight. Like most of the "signers," he was permitted to live to a green old age, and died universally lamented.

ROGER SHERMAN.

"THAT," said Mr. Jefferson on one occasion, when pointing out the various members of Congress to a friend, "that is Mr. SHERMAN of Connecticut—a man who never said a foolish thing in his life." The great patriot of whom this remark was made was born at Newton, Massachusetts, on the 19th of April, 1721. His father, being a farmer in moderate circumstances, could only secure him the education of a village school. Young Roger was then apprenticed to a shoemaker, and on the death of his father he supported his mother and a numerous family by his toil.

In 1743, the Sherman family removed to New Milford, Connecticut. Soon afterward, Roger abandoned the shoemaking trade, and commenced business in partnership with his brother as a country merchant. He displayed an extraordinary thirst for knowledge, and at an early age was remarkable for the extent and accuracy of his attainments. His mathematical and astronomical knowledge was far beyond that of most men in his part of the country. In 1745, he was appointed county surveyor; and in 1748, and for several succeeding years, he supplied the astronomical calculations for an almanac published in the city of New York.

Having devoted leisure moments to the study of law, Mr. Sherman was admitted to the bar in 1754. He rapidly rose to distinction. In the following year he was appointed a justice of the peace for New Milford, which town he also represented the same year in the colonial assembly. In 1759, he was appointed judge of the court of common pleas for the county of Litchfield—an office which he filled with great reputation for the two ensuing years. He then fixed his residence in New Haven, of which town he was made a justice of the peace, and often represented it in the colonial assembly. In 1765, he was made judge of the court of common pleas, and about the same time he was appointed treasurer of Yale College. In 1766, he was elected a member of the upper house in the general assembly of Connecticut, which station he retained for nineteen years, when the office of judge being considered incompatible with it, he retired. His judgeship he held until his election, in 1789, to Congress, under the federal constitution.

Mr. Sherman's early and strenuous support of American rights caused him to be chosen a delegate to the first general Congress of 1774. He was present at the opening of the session, and continued

to occupy a seat in that body until his death, in 1793, a space of nineteen years. His whole congressional career was marked by indefatigable zeal, industry, and fortitude. His sterling sense, integrity, and firmness gave him great influence in the assembly. The estimation in which he was held by his fellow-members may be inferred from the selection of him as the associate of Adams, Franklin, Jefferson, and Livingston, on the committee appointed to prepare the Declaration of Independence. While holding a seat in Congress, he served the State which he represented in various other ways. During the war, he was a member of the governor's council of safety; and from 1784 to his death, was mayor of the city of New Haven.

In 1783, Mr. Sherman was commissioned, together with Richard Law, both of whom were at the time judges of the superior court, to revise the statutes of the State—a work of great labour and difficulty, and which was executed with corresponding ability. In 1787, he was a member of the convention which formed the present constitution of the United States; and its adoption in Connecticut was owing, in a great measure, to his influence. He appeared before the State convention, and made a plain and perspicuous explanation of the probable operation of the principles of the instrument. He was continued in his place in the house of representatives under the new government, and at the expiration of two years was chosen to the senate, but was obliged to retire from this station in consequence of ill health. On the 23d of July, 1793, this illustrious patriot and statesman was gathered to his fathers.

Roger Sherman, like all very great men, naturally possessed powerful passions. But by a determined practice he acquired a lofty self-control, for which he was remarkable through life. His mind was as penetrating as it was comprehensive, and his knowledge was vast and accurate. As a patriot, he was active and firm; as a judge, he was impartial in spirit and severely logical in decision. As a speaker, he had none of the exterior graces of oratory; but a conviction of his sincerity and the weight of his words secured general respect for all that he uttered.

SAMUEL HUNTINGTON.

Samuel Huntington was descended from a respectable family who were among the first settlers of New England. He was born at Windham, Connecticut, in 1732.

In his youth he gave indications of an excellent understanding. Without the advantages of a collegiate education he acquired a competent knowledge of the law, and was early admitted to the bar, soon after which he settled in Norwich, and in a few years became eminent in his profession.

In 1764, Mr. Huntington commenced his political labours as a representative of the town of Norwich in the general assembly, and in the following year received the office of king's attorney, which he sustained with reputation until more important services induced him to relinquish it. In 1774, he was appointed an associate judge in the superior court, and in the following year a member of the council of Connecticut.

Being decided in his opposition to the claims and oppressions of the British Parliament, and active in his exertions in favour of the colonies, the general assembly of Connecticut, properly appreciating his talents and patriotism, appointed him a delegate to Congress, on the second Tuesday of October, 1775, in conjunction with Roger Sherman, Oliver Wolcott, Titus Hosmer, and William Williams. On the 16th of January, 1776, he took his seat in that venerable assembly; and in the subsequent month of July affixed his signature to an instrument which will continue to be cherished and maintained so long as free principles and free institutions are permitted to exist. In this high station he devoted his talents and time to the public service during several successive years. His stern integrity and inflexible patriotism rendered him a prominent member, and attracted a large share of the current business of the house. As a member of numerous important committees he acted with judgment and deliberation, and perseveringly dedicated his moments of leisure to the general benefit of the country. He zealously performed the duties of this office during the years 1776, '77, '78, '79, and '80, when he returned to Connecticut, and resumed his station upon the bench and seat in the council, which had been continued vacant until his return.

The estimation in which Mr. Huntington was held by his fellow-members may be properly appreciated from his appointment, on the

28th of September, 1779, to the highest civil dignity of the country. On the resignation of John Jay, who had been appointed minister plenipotentiary to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce and of alliance between the United States of America and his Catholic Majesty, Mr. Huntington was elected president of Congress. In 1780, he was re-elected to the same honourable office, which he continued to fill with dignity and impartiality until the following year, when, worn out by the constant cares of public life, and his unremitting application to his official duties, he desired leave of absence, and intimated to the house the necessity of his returning home for the re-establishment of his health. The nomination of his successor was, however, postponed by Congress, which appeared unwilling to dispense with the services of a president whose practical worth had been so long and amply displayed. After the expiration of two months, Mr. Huntington, on the 6th of July, 1781, more explicitly declared that his ill state of health would not permit him to continue longer in the exercise of the duties of that office, and renewed his application for leave of absence. His resignation was accepted, and Samuel Johnson, of North Carolina, declining the then appointment, Thomas McKean was elevated to the presidency. A few days after his retirement the thanks of Congress were presented to Mr. Huntington, "in testimony of their approbation of his conduct in the chair, and in the execution of public business."

After having thus pursued his congressional career with distinguished success, rising by the energy of his own mind and the perseverance of self-instruction, from the plough to the presidency, Mr. Huntington, in August, 1781, resumed his judicial functions in the superior court of Connecticut, and his station in the council of that State.

In May, 1782, he was again elected a delegate to Congress, but it does not appear that he joined his colleagues in that body during the year for which he was then appointed. The injury which his health had previously sustained, and his duties as a judge and a counsellor, probably prevented him from becoming an active member of the delegation. But his desire to engage in scenes of more general usefulness overcame these objections at the ensuing election; having been re-appointed in 1783, he resumed his seat in Congress in the following July. He continued, without intermission, to perform his duties in Congress until its adjournment to Annapolis, on the 4th of November, 1783, when he finally retired from the great council of the nation, of which he had so long been an influential member.

In 1784, soon after his return from Congress, he was appointed chief-justice of the superior court of Connecticut, and after discharging the duties of that office for one year, was elected lieutenant-governor of the State. Having at all times a perfect command over his passions, he presided on the bench with great ability and impartiality: no judge in Connecticut was more dignified in his deportment, more courteous and polite to the gentlemen of the bar, nor more respected by the particular parties interested in the proceedings of the court. In 1786, he succeeded Governor Griswold as chief-magistrate of the State, and continued to be annually re-elected, with singular unanimity, until his death. This excellent man and undeviating patriot died in Norwich, on the 5th day of January, 1796, in the sixty-fourth year of his age.

In person, Governor Huntington was of ordinary stature. His complexion was dark and his eye was bright and penetrating. His manners were generally cold and formal, but in the social circle he was a pleasing and entertaining companion. His mind was logical and penetrating, and his knowledge of law and politics was precise and profound. As an example of self-education he is worthy a place beside Roger Sherman.

WILLIAM WILLIAMS.

William Williams was born at Lebanon, Connecticut, on the 8th of April, 1731. His father was a minister of the parish.

At the age of sixteen he entered Harvard College, and graduated with honour in due time. After serving a long time in the legislature of his native State, he was, during the years 1776 and '77, a member of the general Congress. At one time, when the paper money was of so little value that military services could not be procured for it, he exchanged for it more than two thousand dollars in specie for the benefit of the cause, which he never recovered. He contributed to arouse the spirit of freedom by several essays on political subjects, and once by an impressive speech. During the whole Revolutionary war, he was very useful in obtaining private contributions of supplies for the army. He died August 2, 1811, in the eighty-first year of his age.

Mr. Williams was distinguished for sterling sense and earnest patriotism. Without being eloquent, he was a clear and forcible

writer and a fluent and effective speaker. The sacrifices which he made for the cause of national independence should embalm his memory in the hearts of his countrymen.

OLIVER WOLCOTT.

Governor Wolcott was one of the boldest and strongest characters of the Revolution. He was born at Windsor, Connecticut, in 1726. His father had been governor of the colony. He received an excellent education, and graduated at Yale College in 1747. At this time war raged between the British and French colonies in America. Young Wolcott seized the opportunity to display the boldness and intrepidity of his character. Having obtained the commission of captain, he raised a company by his own exertions, and joined the army on the northern frontiers, where he continued in active service until the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Returning to Connecticut, Mr. Wolcott began the study of medicine, but abandoned it on being appointed sheriff of the county of Litchfield. From 1774 till 1786, he was annually chosen an assistant in the council of state; and, during the same period, he also held the responsible offices of judge of the common pleas and judge of the court of probate. Mr. Wolcott took a decided part at the commencement of the disturbances which heralded the approach of the Revolution. The cause of the colonies found in him an earnest and able advocate. In 1776, his devoted patriotism and general ability procured for him a seat in the national Congress, and the glorious privilege of signing his name to the Declaration of Independence.

Immediately after the adoption of the Declaration, he returned to Connecticut, and was invested with the command of fourteen regiments of the state militia, raised for the defence of New York. In November he resumed his seat in Congress. The following summer, after performing several military movements, he joined the northern army under Gates with a corps of several hundred volunteers, and assisted in the defeat of Burgoyne. From this period, until 1786, he was occupied in serving his country, either in Congress or the field, or as a commissioner of Indian affairs for the northern department, settling terms of peace with the Six Nations. In the latter year, he was elected lieutenant-governor of the State; and, after ten

successive annual re-elections, was chosen governor. He died December 1, 1797, in the seventy-second year of his age.

Oliver Wolcott was remarkable for his decision, energy, integrity, and judgment. A self-reliant man, he won the confidence of his fellow-countrymen, and became a leader in times of the sorest need.

WILLIAM FLOYD.

At the head of the delegation from New York, who signed the "Declaration," was William Floyd. He was born on Long Island, New York, December 17, 1734.

He received a liberal education, and afterward confined himself to the pursuits of agriculture. At an early period he embarked in the controversy between Great Britain and the colonies; and as it grew more animated, he became more conspicuous as an advocate of the rights of the people. It was doubtless from these considerations that he was appointed a delegate from New York to the Congress which met at Philadelphia in 1774.

In 1775 he was re-elected, and took his seat in the general Congress which met in May, 1776. During this interesting and protracted session, he was actively and constantly employed on the numerous and important committees which particularly occupied a greater part of the attention of Congress.

In 1777, Mr. Floyd was elected a senator under the new constitution of New York. Of this body he was a leading and influential member. In 1778–9 he served as a delegate to the general Congress; was a member of the board of admiralty, and of the board of treasury. He was annually re-elected to Congress until 1783, when he declined a re-election.

Mr. Floyd was a member of the senate upon the adoption of the federal constitution; and likewise a member of the first Congress, which met at New York on the 4th March, 1789. At the close of this session he retired from public life to the more peaceful shades of domestic retirement. Subsequently, he served thrice as a presidential elector, and once as a senator. On the 1st August, 1821, he was gathered to his fathers, at the advanced age of eighty-seven years.

Mr. Floyd served his country with ability and fidelity for more than fifty years. His career was honourable in every respect.

During the Revolution, much of his property was destroyed by the British, so that he was one of the most extensive sufferers by the war.

PHILIP LIVINGSTON.

Philip Livingston was a member of that Livingston family which has long been distinguished in the State of New York. He was born at Albany, January 15, 1716. His education was thorough and classical, and he graduated at Yale College in 1737. He then embarked in mercantile pursuits, and, by his enlarged enterprise and careful industry, became prosperous and wealthy.

Mr. Livingston made his first appearance in public life in 1754, when he was elected an alderman of the city of New York. From this period he continued to fill various and important trusts under the colonial government, till he took a decided and energetic stand against the usurpations of Great Britain.

Mr. Livingston was chosen a member of the first Congress which met at Philadelphia on the 5th September, 1774. In this assembly he took a distinguished part, and was appointed on the committee to prepare an address to the people of Great Britain. He was re-elected a delegate in 1775, with full power to concert, with the other delegates from the other colonies, upon such measures as should be judged most effectual for the preservation and re-establishment of American rights and privileges.

On the 4th July, 1776, he affixed his signature to the Declaration of Independence. On the 15th July, 1776, he was chosen by Congress a member of the board of treasury, and on the 29th April following, a member of the marine committee; two important trusts, in which the safety and well-being of America were essentially involved.

On the 13th May, 1777, the State convention re-elected Mr. Livingston to Congress, and at the same time thanked him and his colleagues for their long and faithful services rendered to the colony and State of New York. Mr. Livingston's attendance in Congress did not, however, preclude his employment at home in affairs of importance. He served in every capacity in which he could be useful in the councils of his State. He assisted in framing a constitution for the State, and, on its adoption, was chosen a senator under it. In October, 1777, he was re-elected to Congress under the new constitution, and took his seat in Congress in May, 1778—one of

the most critical and gloomy periods of the Revolution; and incessantly devoted his whole faculties to the salvation of his country. He expired at York, Pennsylvania, on the 12th June, 1778.

A short time previous to his demise, he sold a portion of his property to sustain the public credit; and though he sensibly felt the approach of death, he did not hesitate to relinquish the endearments of a beloved family, and devote the last remnant of his illustrious life to the service of his country, then enveloped in the thickest gloom.

In temper, Mr. Livingston was somewhat irritable, yet tender and affectionate to his family and friends. His bearing was dignified and reserved, and he seldom indulged with much freedom in conversation. His quick perception of character, his extensive knowledge, and his solidity of judgment, rendered him of great service in the high positions to which he was chosen by his countrymen.

FRANCIS LEWIS.

Francis Lewis was another of the signers of the "Declaration" who was not born on the soil of America. He was a native of South Wales, and was born in the year 1715. He was carefully educated at Westminster School, England, but chose mercantile pursuits. At the age of twenty-one he converted his patrimony into merchandise, and sailed for New York, whence he proceeded to Philadelphia. There he remained for two years, engaged in mercantile business, and then returned to New York.

In New York, Mr. Lewis soon became a man of influence, and his superior energy and ability were generally acknowledged. At the commencement of the serious disputes between the colonies and the mother country, he took a bold, decided stand in favour of the colonial cause. In 1775, he was unanimously elected to the Continental Congress from New York. His extensive commercial knowledge and practical cast of mind rendered him of great service in that body. During the war, the estate of Mr. Lewis was devastated, and himself captured by the enemy. He suffered much during his imprisonment, but was released before the end of the contest, through the exertions of Washington. His latter days were spent in comparative poverty; for he had sacrificed the bulk of his fortune, acquired by trade, upon the altar of patriotism. He died on the 30th of December, 1803, in the eighty-ninth year of his age.

Mr. Lewis was distinguished for energy and decision of character, and for an extensive knowledge of men and things, acquired by close observation. He was a practical man in every respect, and all his suggestions as a legislator were of weight and influence.

LEWIS MORRIS.

Lewis Morris was born in the State of New York, in 1726. He was proprietor of the large manor of Morrisania, in the county of Westchester. He was educated at Yale College, of which he received the honours. On his return home he devoted himself to agriculture. When the dissensions between the mother country began he was in a most fortunate situation; with an ample estate, a fine family, an excellent constitution, literary taste, and general occupations of which he was fond. He renounced at once his domestic comfort, in order to assert the rights of his country. He was elected to the Congress of 1775, wherein he served on the most important committees. That body assigned to him the arduous task of detaching the Western Indians from the coalition with Great Britain. On this errand he repaired to Pittsburg, and acted with zeal and address.

In the beginning of 1776, Mr. Morris resumed his seat in Congress, where he was a laborious and very useful member. When he signed the Declaration of Independence, it was at the risk of his beautiful and extensive manor, near New York, which was, in fact, soon after laid waste by the enemy. Three of his sons served in the army with much distinction. He quitted Congress in 1777, and was afterward in the State legislature, and a major-general of militia. Mr. Morris died on his paternal estate, in January, 1798, at the age of seventy-one, possessing universal esteem. He was one of those whole-souled patriots who staked every thing upon the cause of his country's independence.

RICHARD STOCKTON.

Richard Stockton was among the most distinguished of the early statesmen of New Jersey. He was born near Princeton, in that State, on the 1st of October, 1730. After receiving the rudiments of a classical education from the Rev. Dr. Samuel Finley, at West Nottingham, he entered the College of New Jersey, and graduated at that celebrated institution in 1748. Mr. Stockton had a natural inclination for the study of the law, and soon after his graduation he commenced the preparatory studies under the direction of David Ogden.

In 1754 he was admitted to the bar, and in 1758, to the grade of counsellor. In 1763, he received the degree of sergeant-at-law, and was at that time unrivalled at the bar. In 1766, he visited England, Scotland, and Ireland, and was received with flattering attention by the most eminent men of the kingdom. On his return home he was, in 1774, appointed one of the judges of the supreme court. On the 21st of June, 1776, the public confidence reposed in his patriotism, firmness, and abilities, by the provincial congress of New Jersey, was manifested by his selection to a seat in the general Congress then sitting in Philadelphia. On taking his seat in this august assembly, he took an active part in the debates, particularly those which preceded the adoption and signing of the Declaration of Independence.

During the summer and autumn of 1776, Mr. Stockton devoted the whole of his time to the pressing exigencies of his country. In September he was deputed by Congress one of the committee to inspect the northern army, and to report on its state, and on any further regulations which they might think necessary for its better government and supply. This service having been discharged, he again resumed his seat in Congress.

On the 30th November following he was, together with his friend and compatriot, John Covenhoven, Esq., at whose house he resided, captured by a party of refugee royalists, and, after having suffered the most cruel treatment, was thrown into the common prison in New York. Congress, immediately on learning his capture and imprisonment, interposed and procured his release. His constitution, however, was so materially impaired by his sufferings that he was never again able, except by counsel and advice, to render any important services to his country.

Mr. Stockton died on the 28th of February, 1781, at his residence, near Princeton, in the fifty-first year of his age.

Mr. Stockton united to great powers of mind vast learning both in law and divinity, persuasive eloquence, and an amiable disposition. In the councils of his country he was always firm, decided, laborious, and influential. His personal sufferings during the great struggle for human rights were more severe than those of any other signer of the Declaration of Independence.

JOHN WITHERSPOON.

WITHERSPOON was called from the halls of science to the councils of the nation, it being as President of the College of New Jersey that he first became known to the people of that State. He was born in Yester, near Edinburgh, Scotland, February 5, 1722.

At the age of fourteen he entered the university of Edinburgh, where he continued till he reached the age of twenty-one, when he was licensed to preach the gospel. In the theological hall he had evinced a taste in sacred criticism, a precision of thought, and a perspicuity of expression which were very uncommon. He was soon ordained at Beith, in the west of Scotland. Thence after a few years he was translated to Paisley. Here he lived in high reputation and great usefulness until he was called to the presidency of Princeton College. So extensively was he known, that he was invited to Dundee, to Dublin, and Rotterdam; but less regardful of personal interest than of what he conceived to be the claims of duty, he was persuaded to listen to the invitation from a distant country. He arrived with his family at Princeton, New Jersey, in the month of August, 1768, and took the charge of a seminary over which had presided Dickinson, Burr, Edwards, Davies, and Finley, men distinguished for genius, learning, and piety. His name brought a great accession of students to the college, and by his exertions its funds were much augmented. But the war of the American Revolution prostrated every thing. While the academial shades were deserted, and his functions as president were suspended, he was introduced into a new field of labour. As he became at once an American on his landing in this country, the citizens of New Jersey, who knew his distinguished abilities, appointed him a member of the convention which formed the constitution of that State. Here he appeared as

profound a civilian, as he had before been known to be a philosopher and divine. From the Revolutionary committees and conventions of the State he was sent early in 1776 a representative to the Congress of United America. He was during seven years a member of that illustrious body, and he was always collected, firm, and wise amid the embarrassing circumstances in which Congress was placed. His name is affixed to the Declaration of Independence. But while he was thus engaged in political affairs he did not lay aside his ministry. He gladly embraced every opportunity of preaching; for his character as a minister of the gospel, he ever considered as his highest honour. As soon as the state of the country would permit, the college was re-established, and its instruction was recommenced under the immediate care of the vice-president, the Rev. Dr. Smith. After the termination of the struggle for American liberty, Dr. Witherspoon was induced from his attachment to the college to cross the ocean, that he might promote its benefit. Though his success was not so great as could be wished, his enterprise and zeal were not the less deserving of commendation. After his return, he entered into that retirement which was dear to him, and his attention was principally confined to the duties of his office as president, and as a minister of the gospel. For more than two years before his death he was afflicted with the loss of sight; but during his blindness he was frequently led into the pulpit, and he always acquitted himself with his usual accuracy and animation. At length he sank under the pressure of his infirmities. He died, November 15, 1794, in the seventy-third year of his age. He was succeeded by Dr. Smith as president of the college.

Dr. Witherspoon, though not a man of the most extensive learning, yet possessed a mass of information well selected and thoroughly digested. Scarcely any man of the age had a more vigorous mind or a sounder understanding. As president of the college he rendered literary inquiries more liberal, extensive, and profound, and was the means of producing an important revolution in the system of education. He extended the study of mathematical science; and it is believed he was the first man who taught in America the substance of those doctrines of the philosophy of the mind, which Dr. Reid afterward developed with so much success. He was very distinguished as a preacher. An admirable textuary, a profound theologian, perspicuous and simple in his manner, a universal scholar, acquainted intimately with human nature, a grave, dignified, and solemn speaker; he brought all the advantages derived from these sources to the illustration and enforcement of divine truth. Though

not a fervent and animated speaker, it was impossible to hear him without attention. His feelings were naturally strong, but he had imposed restraints upon himself. All ostentation in the pulpit he viewed with the utmost aversion. He loved to dwell on the great doctrines of divine grace. Though he wrote his sermons, and committed them to memory, yet, as he was governed by the desire of doing good, and wished to bring his discourses to the level of every understanding, he was not confined, when addressing his hearers, within the boundaries of what he had written. His life was upright and holy. Besides the daily intercourse with heaven which he held in the closet, and occasional seasons of solemn recollection and devotion, he observed the last day of the year with his family as a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer. To the young he was particularly attentive, taking every opportunity to impart to them useful advice in the most agreeable manner. Having a rich fund of anecdote, his moments of relaxation were as entertaining as his serious ones were instructive. The following anecdote presents a specimen of his wit. When Burgoyne's army was captured at Saratoga, General Gates despatched one of his aids to Congress to carry the intelligence. The officer, after being delayed by amusements, which offered themselves to him on his way, at length arrived at Philadelphia, but the report of the victory had reached there several days before. Congress, according to custom, proceeded to give the messenger some mark of their esteem. It was proposed to present him with an elegant sword; but Dr. Witherspoon rose, and begged leave to move, that instead of a sword, they should present him with a pair of golden spurs.

FRANCIS HOPKINSON.

Hopkinson was one of the poets of the Revolution. As a satirist he had no rival during that period, and his effusions were exceedingly popular. He was born in Philadelphia about the year 1737. Receiving the benefit of a thorough classical education, he graduated at the college of his native city, and then commenced the study of the law. He was admitted to the bar, but had barely time to attain practice, when he was called into active life. In the year 1761, he officiated as secretary in a solemn conference held with the Indians, by order of the government of Pennsylvania.

In 1765, Mr. Hopkinson visited England; but as soon as the clouds began to gather round our political horizon, and the unjustifiable oppressions of the British Government became more daring and decided, glowing with love of country, and feeling, in unison with his fellow-citizens, a becoming indignation at the rapid encroachments of an usurped power, he immediately embarked for America, and on his arrival he employed his pen in support of his oppressed country.

In 1776, he was elected a delegate to Congress from the State of New Jersey, and participated largely in the proceedings of that enlightened assembly, and afterward affixed his name to the Declaration of Independence. He was afterward appointed judge of the admiralty for the State of Pennsylvania. This office he held until 1790, when he received the appointment of judge of the district court. In each of these judicial offices he conducted himself with integrity and ability.

He was an active and useful member of the great parties which, at different times, divided his native State. He was a Whig, a Republican, and a Federalist, and he lived to see the principles and wishes of each of those parties finally successful. Although his labours had been rewarded with many plentiful harvests of well-earned fame, yet his death, to his country and his friends, was premature. He died suddenly on the morning of the 9th of May, 1791.

We have briefly sketched Mr. Hopkinson's political career. But it was by his writings that he acquired the greater fame and influence. He began in 1775 with a small tract, entitled a "Pretty Story," in which, in an allegorical manner, he exposed the tyranny of Great Britain toward America, and he concluded his contributions to his country in this way with the "History of the New Roof," which ought to be read with interest, while the citizens of the United States are sheltered under their present form of national government. His "Battle of the Kegs" has been much admired for its wit. A few years before his death, in consequence of an act of the Assembly for cutting down the trees of Philadelphia, in order to guard against fire and the evils of stagnant air, he wrote a humorous speech of a *standing* member of the Assembly against the act, and rescued the devoted trees from the impending destruction. His satires on newspaper scandal had the effect to restrain for a number of months the licentiousness of the press. His specimen of modern learning in an examination of the properties of a salt-box, is a piece of exquisite humour. His opinion on education were somewhat peculiar. He often ridiculed in conversation the practice of teaching children the

English language by means of grammar. He considered most of the years, which were spent in learning Greek and Latin, as lost; and he held several of the arts and sciences, which are taught in colleges, in great contempt. To his poetical talents he united uncommon excellence in music, and some knowledge of painting. Besides the above works, he published "Science," a poem, 1762. After his death, his miscellaneous essays and occasional writings were published in three volumes octavo, 1792.

In person, Mr. Hopkinson was diminutive, being below the middle height, and rather thin. But his small features were uncommonly animated, and the quickness of his speech and motions indicated the activity of his mind. He possessed an exceedingly amiable disposition, and was an entertaining companion. Seldom has such a union of good nature and power of satire been found to exist in the same man.

JOHN HART.

"Honest John Hart" was one of the first deputies from New Jersey to the general Congress of the colonies. He was born in that State. His father was a farmer, and John was reared to the same laborious life. Upon the death of his father, he succeeded to the possession of a considerable estate. While still a young man, Mr. Hart became distinguished among his neighbours for his strong sense and scrupulous integrity. Being frequently chosen to a seat in the colonial legislature, he there displayed a warm attachment for the principles of liberty.

In 1774, Mr. Hart was chosen a delegate from New Jersey to the general Congress at Philadelphia, and his firmness, judgment, and industry caused him to be frequently re-elected. He was a decided advocate of the Declaration of Independence, and affixed his name to that instrument with singular ardour. Near the end of the year 1776, New Jersey became the scene of a devastating war. Mr. Hart was considered particularly obnoxious to the royalists. His property suffered to a great extent, and he was hunted about without intermission, being obliged to fly from his house when his wife was afflicted with a distressing disease, which ultimately caused her death. The persecuted patriot was often in want of food. On one occasion he was forced to conceal himself during the night in a dog-kennel.

Such were the sufferings of a lover of liberty, who dared to pledge his life, fortune, and sacred honour in the cause of his country.

After the evacuation of New Jersey by the English, Mr. Hart returned to his farm and began to repair the injuries it had undergone. But his constitution was so much weakened by hardship and exposure, that it gradually gave way, and in 1780, he expired, lamented by his friends as an "honest man, the noblest work of God," and by his countrymen as a patriot as true as steel.

ABRAHAM CLARK.

Abraham Clark was one of the least prominent members of the Congress that adopted the "Declaration;" but he was also an inflexible supporter of the cause of independence, and a legislator of considerable experience. He was born at Elizabethtown, New Jersey, on the 15th of February, 1726. He was a self-educated, energetic, and industrious young man, and acquired considerable influence among the people of his district by his varied abilities. He was elected to the Provincial Assembly. While he was a member of that body, the troubles between the colonies and the mother country began. Mr. Clark was a bold advocate of colonial rights, and his conduct increased his popularity. On the 10th of January, 1776, he was appointed secretary of the New Jersey Committee of Safety; and shortly afterward he appeared as an active member of the convention which met to frame a state constitution for New Jersey. He was then chosen a delegate to the Continental Congress at Philadelphia. The New Jersey convention had previously adopted resolutions instructing their delegates to vote for the Declaration of Independence, and therefore their course was marked out for them. Mr. Clark cast his vote, however, according to the sentiments of his heart and the judgment of his mind.

Mr. Clark was one of the earliest advocates of a strong federal government, when the independence of the country had been secured. He was one of the delegates to the convention at Annapolis, and also to the convention at Philadelphia, which framed the federal constitution. Afterward, Mr. Clark was chosen to the legislature of his native State, and he continued active in public affairs until his death in June, 1794, at the age of sixty-eight years.

ROBERT MORRIS.

The great financier of the Revolution,—he who furnished the sinews of war,—was born in Liverpool, England, on the 20th of January, 1734. He was the son of a respectable merchant. At the age of thirteen he accompanied his father to America. Soon after his arrival, Robert was placed under the tuition of the Rev. Mr. Gordon, of Maryland. At the age of fifteen he lost his father; and he then entered the counting-house of Charles Willing, at that time a distinguished merchant of Philadelphia.

As soon as he arrived at years of discretion, Mr. Morris was established in business by his patron. In 1769, he married Mary White, the sister of the celebrated Bishop White, a young, rich, and accomplished lady. For some years, Mr. Morris was entirely devoted to commercial pursuits. But on the approach of the rupture between the colonies and the mother country, he displayed a decided partiality for the cause of the former, and, having acquired a reputation for energy and ability, he was, in 1775, sent to the continental Congress, as a member from Pennsylvania. In that body, he was immediately employed in making important financial arrangements.

During the march of the British troops through the Jerseys, in 1776, the removal of Congress to Baltimore is well known. For reasons of a commercial nature, Mr. Morris was left at Philadelphia, to remain as long as circumstances would permit. At this crisis, a letter from the commander-in-chief was received by the government, announcing, that while the enemy were accurately informed of all his movements, he was compelled, from the want of hard money, to remain in complete ignorance of their arrangements, and requiring a certain sum as absolutely necessary to the safety of the army. Information of this demand was sent to Mr. Morris, in the hope that, through his credit, the money might be obtained; the communication reached him at his office, in the way from which to his dwelling-house, immediately afterward, he was met by a gentleman of the Society of Friends, with whom he was in habits of business and acquaintance, and who accosted him with his customary phrase, "Well, Robert, what news?" "The news is," said Mr. Morris, "that I am in immediate want of a sum of hard money," mentioning the amount, "and that you are the man who must procure it for me. Your security is to be my note of hand and my honour." After a short

hesitation, the gentleman replied, "Robert, thou shalt have it;" and, by the punctual performance of his promise, enabled Congress to comply with the requisition of the general.

The situation of General Greene, in South Carolina, was equally critical—his distresses rendering it scarcely practicable to keep his troops together—when a gentleman, Mr. Hall, of that State, by stepping forward, and advancing the necessary sums, enabled him to stem the danger. On the return of General Greene to Philadelphia, after the war had terminated, he repaired to the office of finance to settle his accounts, when the secret was divulged, that Mr. Hall had acted under the direction of Mr. Morris. The general was hurt at such an apparent want of confidence in him; but on reconsidering the subject, he admitted the wisdom of the caution which had been used: "I give you my opinion," said he, "that you never did a wiser thing: for, on other occasions, I was sufficiently distressed to have warranted my drawing on you, had I known that I might have done so, and I should have availed myself of the privilege." Mr. Morris rejoined, that, even as matters had been conducted, the southern expedition had gone nearer than the operations in any other quarter, to the causing of an arrest of his commercial business.

By a resolution of Congress, the office of financier was established in 1781, and Mr. Morris was unanimously elected as the superintendent. Previous to this election, he had formed a mercantile connection with I. and R. Hazlehurst, and his fear lest the duties of an official situation of such importance should interfere with his engagements in business, prevented his acceptance of office, until Congress had specifically resolved, that his fulfilment of his commercial obligations was not incompatible with the performance of the public services required of him.

To trace him through all the acts of his financial administration would be to make this biography a history of the last two years of the Revolutionary war. When the exhausted credit of the government threatened the most alarming consequences; when the soldiers were utterly destitute of the necessary supplies of food and clothing; when the military chest had been drained of its last dollar; and even the intrepid confidence of Washington was shaken; upon his own credit, and from his own private resources, did Mr. Morris furnish those pecuniary means, but for which the physical energies of the country, exerted to their utmost, would have been scarcely competent to secure that prompt and glorious issue which ensued.

One of the first acts of his financial government was the proposition to Congress of his plan for the establishment of the Bank of

North America, which was chartered forthwith, and opened on the 7th of January, 1782. At this time, "the States were half a million of dollars in debt on that year's taxes, which had been raised by anticipation, on that system of credit which Mr. Morris had created;" and, but for this establishment, his plans of finance must have been entirely frustrated. On his retirement from office, it was affirmed, by two of the Massachusetts delegates, "that it cost Congress at the rate of eighteen millions per annum, hard dollars, to carry on the war, till he was chosen financier, and then it cost them but little above five millions!"

By the representations of a committee of Congress, Mr. Morris was induced to abandon his intention of quitting office, in 1783, and he accordingly continued to superintend the department of finance, to the 30th September, 1784, when, in a letter to the commissioners of the treasury board, he resigned his office, and immediately issued an advertisement, pledging himself to the payment of all his outstanding debts, as they should arrive at maturity.

His next public service was performed as a member of the convention which framed the federal Constitution in 1787.

Fatigued with political cares, which, from the time of his election to a seat in the first Congress under the federal constitution, had so completely engrossed his mind, he was now anxious to retire to the relaxation of private life. That he was not avaricious after influence, may be sufficiently established from the fact of his refusal to accept the situation of secretary of the treasury, which General Washington wished him to fill.

That his long continuance in the public service and his unremitted attention to the business of his country had caused some confusion in his private affairs, he assigned as a reason for declining to comply with the solicitations of the city of Philadelphia, which had sent a delegation to request he would become its representative in Congress. It is true, indeed, that he was subsequently induced to resume his situation as a delegate from Pennsylvania, and that he continued to fill this distinguished character for several years after his retirement from the financial department; but it is equally true that this compliance with the public wish was rather the effect of a powerful sense of political duty than of inclination. His long inattention to his private affairs was productive of great embarrassments of mind and circumstances, the results of which cast a shade over those declining years which unembarrassed repose and honourable affluence ought to have soothed and cherished.

After a life of inestimable utility, Mr. Morris died in Philadelphia,

on the 8th of May, 1806, in the 73d year of his age. In person, Mr. Morris was of large frame, with an open countenance and unpretending manners. He was temperate in food, but fond of convivial meetings. His hospitable mansion was always open to strangers of good society. His mind was strongly practical. He was a fluent, correct, and impressive orator, and he wrote with ease and force. His public services can scarcely be overrated in importance. He never despaired of ultimate success during the Revolution, and was willing to make every sacrifice to attain the desired end. It may be said of him, as Webster said of Hamilton, "He touched the corpse of our credit, and it immediately became a living body."

BENJAMIN RUSH.

The ancestors of Benjamin Rush followed William Penn from England to Pennsylvania in 1683. His father had a fine estate about twelve miles from Philadelphia. There the most celebrated physician of America was born, on the 24th of December, 1745. His father died while Benjamin was yet young; and when the promising boy was only nine years of age, he was placed under the care of his maternal uncle, Rev. Dr. Samuel Finley, a scholar of high reputation. At this excellent school he remained five years, and then entered Princeton College—then under the superintendence of President Davis. At college, young Rush was distinguished by remarkable eloquence as a public speaker and rapid progress in study.

In the year 1760, at the early age of fifteen, young Rush received the degree of bachelor of arts. The next succeeding six years were devoted to the study of medicine, under Dr. John Redman, at that time an eminent practitioner in the city of Philadelphia. Having, with great fidelity completed his course of medical studies under Dr. Redman, he embarked for Europe, and passed two years at the University of Edinburgh, attending the lectures of those celebrated professors, Dr. Munro, Dr. Gregory, Dr. Cullen, and Dr. Black.

In the spring of 1768, he received the degree of doctor of medicine. From Edinburgh, Dr. Rush proceeded to London, where, in attendance upon the hospitals of that city, he made many accessions to the stock of knowledge already acquired. In the spring of 1769, after visiting Paris, he returned to his native country, and immedi-

ately commenced the practice of physic in the city of Philadelphia, in which he soon became eminently distinguished. In a few months he was elected a professor in the medical school which had been recently established by the exertions of Dr. Shippen, Dr. Kuhn, Dr. Morgan, and Dr. Bond.

But Dr. Rush did not confine his attention and pursuits either to the practice of medicine, or to the duties of his professorship: his ardent mind did not permit him to be an inactive spectator of those important public events which occurred in the early period of his life.

The American Revolution, the independence of his country, the establishment of a new constitution of government for the United States, and the amelioration of the constitution of his own particular State, all successively interested his feelings, and induced him to take an active concern in the scenes that were passing. He held a seat in the celebrated Congress of 1776, as a representative of the State of Pennsylvania, and subscribed the ever-memorable instrument of American independence. In 1777 he was appointed physician-general of the military hospital for the middle department; and in the year 1787 he received the additional gratification and evidence of his country's confidence in his talents, his integrity, and his patriotism, by being chosen a member of the State convention for the adoption of the federal constitution.

These great events being accomplished, Dr. Rush gradually retired from political life, resolved to dedicate the remainder of his days to the practice of his profession, the performance of his collegiate duties, and the publication of those doctrines and principles in medicine which he considered calculated to advance the interests of his favourite science, or to diminish the evils of human life.

In 1789, Dr. Rush was elected the successor of Dr. Morgan to the chair of the theory and practice of physic in the Philadelphia College. In 1791, he was appointed to the professorship of the institutes of medicine, and clinical practice; and in 1805, upon the resignation of Dr. Kuhn, he was chosen to the united professorships of the theory and practice of physic, and of clinical medicine, which he held the remainder of his life.

Besides these delegated and official trusts, he took, as a member of the community, a very prominent concern in all the leading national transactions that occurred from the commencement of the Revolutionary war till the organization of our present form of government. Contemporary with this latter event was the termination of his political life. He afterward devoted himself exclusively to his profession, and to the discharge of his duties as a private

citizen. The only appointment he ever held under the federal government, as an acknowledgment of all that he had contributed toward its establishment, was that of cashier of the mint of the United States.

In addition to those already enumerated, he held many other places of honour and confidence, which were conferred on him by the suffrages of select associations. He was, for many years, one of the physicians of the Pennsylvania Hospital, to the interests of which he most faithfully devoted a portion of his time. He was president of the American Society for the Abolition of Slavery, vice-president of the Philadelphia Bible Society, an early member, and, for a time, president of the Philadelphia Medical Society, one of the vice-presidents of the American Philosophical Society, and a member of many other learned and benevolent institutions, both in America and Europe.

In private charities and acts of hospitality, in public contributions for benevolent purposes, and in donations to churches, colleges, and other useful establishments, Dr. Rush was always liberal; more so, perhaps, during a part of his life, than was consistent with his income. But his object was to do good, and he recognised no value in money except what arose from the proper employment of it. His charities as a physician were also extensive; for throughout the whole of his life, he regularly set apart a portion of his time for the rendering of professional services to the poor. Those persons in particular, who, in a season of prosperity, had employed him as their physician, he never forsook in the hour of their adversity, when the hand of penury was heavy on their spirits. To their shattered and desponding minds he feelingly administered the balm of comfort, while, by his attention and skill, he removed or alleviated their bodily sufferings.

In the midst of his honours and usefulness, advanced in years, but in the meridian of his fame, he died, after a short illness, on the 19th of April, 1813.

In person, Dr. Rush was above the middle stature, his frame being slender, but symmetrical. His features were prominent, and their combined expression indicated the vigour and penetration of his mind. He was temperate in his diet, neat in his dress, and the well-bred gentleman in all his habits. In colloquial powers he had but few equals. During his whole life, he was a practical Christian. As a physician, Dr. Rush ranked among the very foremost of his age. He was especially skilful in the treatment of fevers. As a statesman and philanthropist, he was active and influential.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

The American people are happy in the possession of the autobiography of a man whose life and writings have had a wonderful influence in moulding the national character.

Benjamin Franklin, the philosopher and statesman, was born in Boston, on the 17th of January, 1706. His father, who was a native of England, was a soap-boiler and tallow-chandler in that town. At the age of eight years he was sent to a grammar-school, but at the age of ten his father required his services to assist him in his business. Two years afterward he was bound as an apprentice to his brother, who was a printer. In this employment he made great proficiency; and having a taste for books, he devoted much of his leisure time to reading. So eager was he in the pursuit of knowledge, that he frequently passed the greater part of the night in his studies. He became expert in the Socratic mode of reasoning by asking questions, and thus he sometimes embarrassed persons of understanding superior to his own. In 1721 his brother began to print the New England Courant, which was the third newspaper published in America. The two preceding papers were the Boston News Letter and Boston Gazette. Young Franklin wrote a number of essays for the Courant, which were so well received as to encourage him to continue his literary labours. To improve his style he resolved to imitate Addison's Spectator. The method which he took was to make a summary of a paper, after he had read it, and in a few days, when he had forgotten the expressions of the author, to endeavour to restore it to its original form. By this means he was taught his errors, and perceived the necessity of being more fully acquainted with the synonymous words of the language. He was much assisted also in acquiring a facility and variety of expression by writing poetry.

At this early period the perusal of Shaftesbury and Collins made him completely a skeptic, and he was fond of disputing upon the subject of religion. This circumstance caused him to be regarded by pious men with abhorrence; and on this account, as well as on account of the ill-treatment which he received from his brother, he determined to leave Boston. His departure was facilitated by the possession of his indenture, which his brother had given him about the year 1723, not from friendship, but because the general court had prohibited him from publishing the New England Courant, and

in order that it might be conducted under the name of Benjamin Franklin. He privately went on board a sloop, and soon arrived at New York. Finding no employment here, he pursued his way to Philadelphia, and entered the city without a friend, and with only a dollar in his pocket. Purchasing some rolls at a baker's shop, he put one under each arm, and, eating a third, walked through several streets in search of lodging. There were at this time two printers in Philadelphia, Mr. Andrew Bradford, and Mr. Keimer, by the latter of whom he was employed. Sir William Keith, the governor, having been informed that Franklin was a young man of promising talents, invited him to his house and treated him in the most friendly manner. He advised him to enter into business for himself, and, to accomplish this object, to make a visit to London in order that he might purchase the necessary articles for a printing office. Receiving the promise of assistance, Franklin prepared himself for the voyage, and on applying for letters of recommendation previously to sailing, he was told that they would be sent on board. When the letter-bag was opened, there was no packet for Franklin; and he now discovered that the governor was one of those men, who love to oblige everybody, and who substitute the most liberal professions and offers in the place of active, substantial kindness. Arriving in London in 1724, he was obliged to seek employment as a journeyman printer. He lived so economically, that he saved a great part of his wages. Instead of drinking six pints of beer in a day, like some of his fellow-labourers, he drank only water; and he persuaded some of them to renounce the extravagance of eating bread and cheese for breakfast and to procure a cheap soup. As his principles at this time were very loose, his zeal to enlighten the world induced him to publish his "Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity," in which he contended that virtue and vice were nothing more than vain distinctions. This work procured him the acquaintance of Mandeville and others of that licentious class.

He returned to Philadelphia in October, 1726, as a clerk to Mr. Denham, a merchant; but the death of that gentleman in the follow-year induced him to return to Mr. Keimer in the capacity of foreman in his office. He was very useful to his employer, for he gave him assistance as a letter-founder. He engraved various ornaments, and made printer's ink. He soon began business in partnership with Mr. Meredith; but in 1729 he dissolved the connection with him. Having purchased of Keimer a paper, which had been conducted in a wretched manner, he now conducted it in a style which attracted much attention. At this time, though destitute of those religious

principles which give stability and elevation to virtue, he yet had discernment enough to be convinced that truth, probity, and sincerity would promote his interest and be useful to him in the world, and he resolved to respect them in his conduct. The expenses of his establishment in business, notwithstanding his industry and economy, brought him in a short time into embarrassments, from which he was relieved by the generous assistance of William Coleman and Robert Grace. In addition to his other employments he now opened a small stationer's shop. But the claims of business did not extinguish his taste for literature and science. He formed a club, which he called the Junto, composed of the most intelligent of his acquaintance. Questions of morality, politics, or philosophy were discussed every Friday evening, and the institution was continued almost forty years. As books were frequently quoted in the club, and as the members had brought their books together for mutual advantage, he was led to form the plan of a public library, which was carried into effect in 1731, and became the foundation of that noble institution, the present Library Company of Philadelphia. In 1732, he began to publish Poor Richard's Almanac, which was enriched with maxims of frugality, temperance, industry, and integrity. So great was its reputation, that he sold ten thousand annually, and it was continued by him about twenty-five years. The maxims were collected in the last almanac in the form of an address, called the Way to Wealth, which has appeared in various publications. In 1736, he was appointed clerk of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, and in 1737 postmaster of Philadelphia. The first fire company was formed by him in 1738. When the frontiers of Pennsylvania were endangered in 1744, and an ineffectual attempt was made to procure a militia law, he proposed a voluntary association for the defence of the province, and in a short time obtained ten thousand names. In 1747, he was chosen a member of the Assembly, and continued in this station ten years. In all important discussions his presence was considered as indispensable. He seldom spoke, and never exhibited any oratory; but by a single observation he sometimes determined the fate of a question. In the long controversies with the proprietaries or their governors, he took the most active part, and displayed a firm spirit of liberty.

He was now engaged for a number of years in a course of electrical experiments, of which he published an account. His great discovery was the identity of the electric fluid and lightning. This discovery he made in the summer of 1752. To the upright stick of a kite he attached an iron point; the string was of hemp, excepting the part

which he held in his hand, which was of silk; and a key was fastened where the hempen string terminated. With this apparatus, on the approach of a thunderstorm, he raised his kite. A cloud passed over it, and no signs of electricity appearing, he began to despair; but observing the loose fibres of his string to move suddenly toward an erect position, he presented his knuckle to the key, and received a strong spark. The success of this experiment completely established his theory. The practical use of this discovery in securing houses from lightning by pointed conductors is well known in America and Europe. In 1753 he was appointed deputy postmaster-general of the British colonies, and in the same year the Academy of Philadelphia, projected by him, was established. In 1754 he was one of the commissioners who attended the Congress at Albany to devise the best means of defending the country against the French. He drew up a plan of union for defence and general government, which was adopted by the Congress. It was however rejected by the Board of Trade in England, because it gave too much power to the representatives of the people; and it was rejected by the assemblies of the colonies, because it gave too much power to the president-general. After the defeat of Braddock he was appointed colonel of a regiment, and he repaired to the frontiers and built a fort. In 1757, he was sent to England as the agent of Pennsylvania, and, while residing there, was appointed agent of Massachusetts, Maryland, and Georgia. He now received the reward of his philosophical merit. He was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society, and was honoured with the degree of doctor of laws by the universities of St. Andrew's, Edinburgh, and Oxford; and his correspondence was sought by the most eminent philosophers of Europe. During his residence in England he published a pamphlet, showing the advantages which would spring from the conquest of Canada; and formed that elegant instrument which he called the Harmonica. He returned in 1762, and resumed his seat in the Assembly; but in 1764 was again sent to London as an agent for the province to procure a change of the proprietary government. In 1766, he was examined at the bar of the House of Commons respecting the repeal of the Stamp Act; and here he evinced the utmost self-possession, with an astonishing accuracy and extent of information. During the same and the following year, by visiting Holland, Germany, and France, he became acquainted with most of the literary characters of Europe. About the year 1773, some letters of Hutchinson, Oliver, and others in Massachusetts, falling into his hands, he sent them to the legislature of that State; but he ever refused to tell how he procured them.

He returned to America in 1775, and the day after his arrival was elected a member of Congress. He was sent to the camp before Boston to confirm the army in their decisive measures, and to Canada to persuade the citizens to join in the common cause. In this last mission, however, he was not successful. In 1776, he was appointed on a committee with John Adams and Edward Rutlege, to inquire into the powers with which Lord Howe was invested in regard to the adjustment of our differences with Great Britain. When his lordship expressed his concern at being obliged to distress those whom he so much regarded, Dr. Franklin assured him that the Americans, out of reciprocal regard, would endeavour to lessen, as much as possible, the pain which he might feel on their account, by taking the utmost care of themselves. In the discussion of the great question of independence, he was decidedly in favour of the measure. He was in the same year chosen president of the convention which met in Philadelphia to form a new constitution for Pennsylvania. The single legislature and the plural executive seem to have been his favourite principles. In the latter end of the year 1776, he was sent to France to assist in negotiation with Mr. Arthur Lee and Silas Deane. He had much influence in forming the treaty of alliance and commerce, which was signed February 6, 1778, and he afterward completed a treaty of amity and commerce with Sweden. In conjunction with Mr. Adams, Mr. Jay and Mr. Laurens, he signed the provisional articles of peace, November 30, 1782, and the definitive treaty, September 30, 1783. While he was in France, he was appointed one of the commissioners to examine Mesmer's animal magnetism in 1784. Being desirous of returning to his native country, he requested that an ambassador might be appointed in his place; and on the arrival of his successor, Mr. Jefferson, he immediately sailed for Philadelphia, where he arrived in September, 1785. He was received with universal applause, and was soon appointed president of the supreme executive council. In 1787, he was a delegate to the grand convention which formed the Constitution of the United States. Some of the articles which composed it did not altogether please him, but for the sake of union he signed it. In the same year he was appointed the first president of two societies, which were established in Philadelphia for alleviating the miseries of public prisons, and for promoting the abolition of slavery. A memorial of the latter society to Congress gave occasion to a debate, in which an attempt was made to justify the slave trade. In consequence of this, Dr. Franklin published in the Federal Gazette, March 25, 1789, an essay, signed Historicus, communicating a pretended

speech, delivered in the divan of Algiers in 1687, against the petition of a sect, called Erika or Purists, for the abolition of piracy and slavery. The arguments urged in favour of the African trade by Mr. Jackson, of Georgia, are here applied with equal force to justify the plundering and enslaving of Europeans. In 1788, he retired wholly from public life, and he now approached the end of his days. He had been afflicted for a number of years with a complication of disorders. For the last twelve months he was confined almost entirely to his bed. In the severity of his pains, he would observe, that he was afraid he did not bear them as he ought, and he expressed a grateful sense of the many blessings received from the Supreme Being, who had raised him from his humble origin to such consideration among men. He died, April 17, 1790, in the eighty-fifth year of his age. The following epitaph was written by himself many years previously to his death:

The body of
Benjamin Franklin, printer,
Like the cover of an old book,
Its contents torn out,
And stript of its lettering and gilding,
Lies here food for worms;
Yet the work itself shall not be lost,
For it will (as he believed) appear once more
In a new
And more beautiful edition,
Corrected and amended
by
The Author.

But although he thus expressed his hope of future happiness, yet from his memoirs it does not appear whether this hope was founded upon the mediation of Jesus Christ. Some have even considered him as not unfriendly to infidelity; but the following anecdote seems to prove, that in his old age he did not absolutely reject the Scriptures. As a young gentleman was one day ridiculing religion as a vulgar prejudice, he appealed to Dr. Franklin, expecting his approbation. "Young man," said the philosopher, emphatically, "it is best to believe." President Stiles addressed a letter to him, dated January 28, 1790, in which he expressed a desire to be made acquainted with his sentiments on Christianity. The following is an extract from it: "You know, sir, I am a Christian; and would to heaven, all others were as I am except my imperfections. As much as I know of Dr. Franklin, I have not an idea of his religious senti-

ments. I wish to know the opinion of my venerable friend concerning Jesus of Nazareth. He will not impute this to impertinence, or improper curiosity in one who for many years has continued to love, estimate, and reverence his abilities and literary character with an ardour of affection. If I have said too much, let the request be blotted out and be no more." To this Dr. Franklin replied, March 9, but a few weeks before his death: "I do not take your curiosity amiss, and shall endeavour, in a few words, to gratify it. As to Jesus of Nazareth, my opinion of whom you particularly desire, I think the system of morals and his religion, as he left them to us, the best the world ever saw, or is likely to see; but I apprehend it has received various corrupting changes; and I have, with most of the present dissenters in England, some doubts as to his divinity." It may not be unnecessary to remark that, if we may credit Dr. Priestley, Dr. Franklin was not correct in estimating the sentiments of a majority of the dissenters in England. He left one son, Governor William Franklin, of New Jersey, a zealous royalist, and a daughter, who married Mr. William Bache, merchant in Philadelphia.

Dr. Franklin acquired a high and deserved reputation as a philosopher, for his philosophy was of a practical and useful kind, and he seemed to be continually desirous of advancing the welfare of society. In company, he was sententious and not fluent, and he chose rather to listen to others than to talk himself. Impatient of interruption, he often mentioned the custom of the Indians, who always remain silent for some time before they give an answer to a question. When he resided in France as a minister from this country, it has been thought that he was somewhat intoxicated by the unbounded applauses which he received, and was too much disposed to adopt the manners of the French. One of his colleagues was immersed in the pleasures of a voluptuous city, and between himself and the other, Mr. Lee, there was some collision.

Soon after his death, his grandson went to England to publish a complete collection of his writings, with his life, brought down by himself to the year 1757, and continued by one of his descendants. He published experiments and observations on electricity, made at Philadelphia, in two parts, 4to, 1753; new experiments, 1754; a historical view of the constitution and government of Pennsylvania, 1759; the interest of Great Britain considered with respect to her colonies, 1760; his experiments with the addition of explanatory notes, and letters and papers on philosophical subjects, 1769; political, miscellaneous, and philosophical pieces, 1779; and several papers in the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society.

Two volumes of his essays, with his life, brought down by himself to the year 1750, were published in England in 1792. A collection of his works was first published in London in 1806, entitled, the Complete works in Philosophy, Politics, and Morals of Dr. Franklin, first collected and arranged, with a memoir of him, 3 vols. 8vo. Sparks' edition of his life and works is the most complete.

In stature, Franklin was above the middle size, and well-proportioned. His head was large, and his countenance was marked with the indications of a serene temper, deep thought, and a firm will. In all his public career, he seldom made a speech of over ten minutes' length. But every word was pertinent and full of thought. As a writer, his style was remarkable for ease, force, and variety. He loved to convey the lessons of wisdom in the shape of maxims, because they took a strong hold on the popular mind. He never attacked an abuse with direct vehemence, but chose the mild mode of ridicule; and this was successful when violent denunciations would have failed.

JOHN MORTON.

A POVERTY of facts must characterize our biography of a man who acted a distinguished part when the declaration of independence was still a question. JOHN MORTON was born in the county of Chester, (then a portion of Pennsylvania, but now Delaware,) about 1721. About the year 1764, he was sent as a delegate to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, of which he continued to be for many years an active and influential member. His patriotism and ability secured him a high reputation at the commencement of the difficulties between the colonies and the mother country, and he was elected a delegate to the Congress of 1774. The manner in which he discharged his duties is shown to have been satisfactory by his re-election.

Mr. Morton was a decided advocate of the glorious Declaration. The Pennsylvania delegation was divided upon the question, and its course depended upon the casting vote of John Morton. He did not hesitate: a man of greater moral intrepidity never lived. He voted in the affirmative, and Pennsylvania stood committed to the Declaration. In the following year, Mr. Morton assisted in organizing a system of confederation for the colonies, and was chairman of the committee of the whole when it was adopted—November 15, 1777. Before the close of the year, he died of an inflammatory fever, in

the fifty-sixth year of his age. He was a man of much energy of character, and remarkable for a sound and accurate judgment. In private life, he was honest, amiable, and social.

GEORGE CLYMER.

George Clymer was born in Philadelphia, in 1739. The death of his parents left George an orphan at the age of seven years; but he was well taken care of by his uncle, William Coleman, who bequeathed to him the principal part of his fortune. After the completion of his studies, young Clymer entered into his uncle's counting-house, though his inclination for cultivating his mind was much greater than for mercantile pursuits. When discontent had been excited in the colonies by the arbitrary acts of the British Parliament, he was among the first in Pennsylvania to raise his voice in opposition, and was named by a meeting held in Philadelphia, October 16, 1773, chairman of a committee appointed to demand of the commissioners for selling the tea which had been imported into America, on account of the East India Company, their resignation of the office. The demand was complied with.

Mr. Clymer was afterward chosen a member of the council of safety, when the increasing troubles rendered such a body necessary. In 1775, he was appointed one of the first continental treasurers, but he resigned his office shortly after his first election to Congress, in August, 1776. His zeal in the cause of his country was displayed by subscribing himself, as well as by encouraging the subscriptions of others, to the loan opened for the purpose of rendering more effective the opposition to the measures of the British; and also by the disinterested manner in which he exchanged all his specie for continental currency. In July, 1776, he was chosen, together with Doctor Benjamin Rush, James Wilson, George Ross, and George Taylor, Esquires, to supply the vacancy in Congress occasioned by the resignation of the members of the Pennsylvania delegation who had refused their assent to the Declaration of Independence. The new members were not present when the instrument was agreed upon, but they all affixed to it their signatures.

In the autumn of 1777, Mr. Clymer's house in Chester county, in which his family resided, was plundered by a band of British soldiers, his property greatly damaged, and his wife and children constrained

to fly for safety. His services in the cause of liberty seemed, indeed, to have rendered him peculiarly obnoxious to the British; for, when they took possession of Philadelphia, a numerous body proceeded to tear down the house of his aunt, supposing it to be his, and only desisted when informed of their mistake. In the year 1780, Mr. Clymer was a member of an association which made an offer to Congress of establishing a bank for the sole purpose of facilitating the transportation of a supply of 3,000,000 of rations and 300 hogsheads of rum to the army, which was on the point of disbanding, in consequence of its distressed condition. Congress received the offer, and pledged the faith of the United States to the subscribers to the bank for their full indemnity, and deposited in it, as well for that purpose, as in support of its credit, bills for £150,000 sterling, on the American ministers in Europe. Mr. Clymer was one of the gentlemen selected to preside over the institution, the good effects of which were long felt.

In November, 1780, Mr. Clymer was again elected to Congress, and strongly advocated there the establishment of a national bank. He was chosen, in May, 1782, to repair, with Mr. Rutledge, to the Southern States, and make such representations as were best adapted to procure from them their quotas for the purposes of the war, which were very remissly furnished. In the autumn of 1784, during which year party spirit had raged with great violence in Pennsylvania, he was elected to the legislature of that State, to assist in opposing the *constitutionalists*, who were so termed in consequence of their upholding the old constitution, which was justly deemed deficient. Pennsylvania is greatly indebted to his exertions for the amelioration of her penal code, which had previously been of so sanguinary a nature as to produce extreme and almost universal discontent. Mr. Clymer was also a member of the convention which framed the present constitution of the federal government, and was elected to the first Congress which met when it was about to be carried into operation. After serving throughout the term, he declined a re-election. In 1781, a bill having been passed in Congress, imposing a duty on spirits distilled within the United States, he was placed at the head of the excise department in the State of Pennsylvania. In the year 1796, he was appointed, together with Colonel Hawkins and Colonel Pickens, to negotiate a treaty with the Cherokee and Creek Indians of Georgia. He subsequently became the first president of the Philadelphia Bank, and of the Academy of Arts. He died January 23, 1813, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, at Morrisville, Bucks county, Pennsylvania.

Mr. Clymer was gifted with a powerful mind, and study and observation gave him a vast amount of information. He was not distinguished as a speaker; his habits were practical and business-like. To his great intellect was united a pure, generous heart, which moved him to scorn every thing mean and base, and to make extensive sacrifices for his country and friends.

JAMES SMITH.

James Smith was one of the three natives of Ireland who signed the Declaration. He was born in that island some time between 1715 and 1720. His father then became a respectable farmer on the Susquehanna. James received a thorough education, graduating at the college of Philadelphia, and afterward studied law. On being admitted to the bar he fixed his residence near the present town of Shippensburg, where he began business as a lawyer and surveyor. But a short time afterward, he removed to York, where he continued the practice of his profession during the remainder of his life.

In 1774, Mr. Smith was a member of the meeting of delegates from all the counties of Pennsylvania, for the purpose of expressing the public sentiment on the expediency of abstaining from importing any goods from England, and assembling a general congress. In January, 1775, Mr. Smith was a member of the Pennsylvania convention, and concurred in the spirited resolutions which it passed, that "if the British administration should determine by force to effect a submission to the late arbitrary acts of the British Parliament, in such a situation we hold it our indispensable duty to resist such force, and at every hazard to defend the rights and liberties of America." He was also a member of the provincial conference, which assembled on the eighteenth of the ensuing month of June, to establish a new government for Pennsylvania, in consequence of the instructions given by the General Assembly to their delegates in Congress, to resist every measure tending to a separation, and seconded the resolution moved by Doctor Rush, to express in form the sentiments of the conference on the subject of a declaration of independence, which was carried, although the obnoxious instructions had been rescinded. Doctor Rush, Mr. Smith, and Thomas M'Kean, were the committee by whom the resolution was drafted. It was unani-

mously adopted, and signed by the members, and presented to Congress, a few days only before the declaration of independence. In July, a convention was assembled in Philadelphia, for the purpose of forming a new constitution for Pennsylvania, of which Colonel Smith was a member. On the twentieth of the month he was elected, by the convention, a member of Congress. He retained his seat in that body until November, 1778, and then resumed his professional pursuits. From these he withdrew in 1800, and died in 1806.

The eminent men with whom he was associated, and the high trusts which he faithfully discharged, are the proofs of his ability, energy, and integrity; and his steady adherence to the cause of independence, under all circumstances, is evidence of his devoted patriotism.

GEORGE TAYLOR.

George Taylor was born in Ireland, in 1716. While still a young man he came to America, having no fortune but an energetic mind and industrious habits. He performed menial labour for some time, and then became a clerk in a large iron establishment. Many years afterward, Mr. Taylor's employer died; the clerk married the widow, and thus became possessed of considerable property. His wealth and ability then secured him influence, and he was elected to a seat in the Assembly of Pennsylvania. At the commencement of the stamp-act excitement Mr. Taylor declared himself a decided Whig, and he continued firm in the faith until his death. In 1776, he was elected to a seat in the Continental Congress. He was not present to vote on the resolution for independence, but he gladly affixed his name to the Declaration, pledging all he was worth to the support of the cause.

In 1777, Mr. Taylor retired from Congress, and moved to the State of Delaware, where he died, February 23, 1781, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. His career displays the glorious triumph of an indomitable mind over all the circumstances of birth and fortune, and he deserves a place among that noble band of self-made men, who have conferred such lustre upon the free institutions of America—men whom no other country could have produced.

JAMES WILSON.

James Wilson was a native of Scotland, and was born in 1742. His father was a respectable farmer, who could afford to give him the advantage of a thorough education. He studied successively at Glasgow, St. Andrew's, and Edinburgh, and then left Scotland for America. He arrived in 1766 in Philadelphia, where he was first employed as a tutor in the Philadelphia College and Academy, in which capacity he acquired a high reputation as a classical scholar. In a few months, however, he relinquished that occupation, and commenced the study of the law in the office of the celebrated John Dickinson. At the expiration of two years he was admitted to the bar, and began to practise, first at Reading, and then at Carlisle. From the latter place he removed to Annapolis, and in 1778 returned to Philadelphia, where he continued to reside during the rest of his life.

Mr. Wilson was elected in 1775 a member of Congress, and took his seat on the 10th of May. He was a uniform advocate of the declaration of independence, though he may have thought, perhaps, that the measure was brought forward prematurely: he voted in favour of it, as well on the first of July, in opposition to the majority of his colleagues from Pennsylvania, as on the 4th, in conjunction with the majority. In 1777 he was superseded in Congress, through the influence of party spirit; but in 1782 he was again honoured with a seat. A few months previously he had been appointed, by the president and supreme executive council, a counsellor and agent for Pennsylvania in the controversy between that State and Connecticut, relating to certain lands within the charter boundary of the former, and which were claimed by the latter as included within her charter. The decision was in favour of Pennsylvania.

In 1779, Mr. Wilson received the appointment of advocate-general for the French government in the United States, an office the duties of which were both arduous and delicate. He resigned it in 1781, in consequence of difficulties respecting the mode of remuneration. He continued, however, to give advice in such cases as were laid before him by the ministers and consuls of France until 1783, when the French transmitted to him a present of ten thousand livres. In 1787, Mr. Wilson was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, and was one of the committee who

reported the draught. In the State convention of Pennsylvania he was principally efficient in causing the constitution to be adopted. He was subsequently a member of the convention which changed the constitution of Pennsylvania, to render it conformable to that of the United States; and, being one of the committee appointed to prepare, was intrusted with the duty of making the draught of the necessary form. In 1789 he was appointed by General Washington a judge of the supreme court of the United States; and, while on a circuit in North Carolina, in the discharge of his functions as such, he died at Edenton, 28th of August, 1798, aged about fifty-six years. As a lawyer and judge, Mr. Wilson was eminent for talent and integrity. In private life he was courteous, kind, and hospitable. His political and legal disquisitions are extant in three volumes, and much esteemed.

GEORGE ROSS.

George Ross was born at New Castle, Delaware, in 1730. His father was then pastor of the Episcopal church at that town. Having received an excellent education, he devoted his mind to the study of law in Philadelphia, at the age of eighteen. As soon as he was admitted to the bar, he established himself in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, where he rapidly acquired influence and reputation. He was considered one of the ablest lawyers in the province.

In 1768, Mr. Ross was chosen a representative in the Assembly of Pennsylvania, and retained his seat in that body until 1774, when he was elected one of the delegates to the first general Congress at Philadelphia. At the time of his election, he was also appointed to report to the assembly of the province a set of instructions to regulate the conduct of himself and his associates. In 1777 indisposition caused Mr. Ross to resign his place in Congress; on which occasion the inhabitants of Lancaster voted him a piece of plate, to be paid for out of the county stock. Mr. Ross, however, thought it his duty to decline the present.

On the dissolution of the proprietary government in Pennsylvania, a general convention was assembled, in which Mr. Ross was appointed to assist in preparing a declaration of rights on behalf of the State, in forming rules of order for the convention, and in defining and settling what should be considered high treason and mis-

prision of treason against the State, and what punishment should be inflicted for those offences. In April, 1779, Mr. Ross was appointed a judge of the court of admiralty for the State of Pennsylvania; but, in the ensuing July, a sudden and violent attack of the gout terminated his life, in the fiftieth year of his age.

Few men in the colonies had a fairer prospect of continued distinction than Mr. Ross. His ability was generally known, and a very high position was conceded him among men, the like of whom will not be seen at an early day.

CÆSAR RODNEY.

The father of Cæsar Rodney came to America with William Penn, and after a short residence in Philadelphia, settled in Kent, a county now forming a part of the State of Delaware. The subject of this memoir was the eldest son, and was born at Dover, about 1730. He received a good education, and upon the death of his father, he inherited a large landed estate. When but twenty-eight years of age, Mr. Rodney was appointed high sheriff, and on the expiration of his term of service, was created a justice of the peace and a judge of the lower courts.

In 1762 Mr. Rodney represented his native county in the legislature; and in 1765 he was elected by that body a delegate to the Congress that met in New York, for the purpose of consulting upon the measures to be adopted in consequence of the stamp act, and other oppressive enactments of the British government.

Mr. Rodney had less of sternness in his nature than we might expect to find in so inflexible a patriot. He was remarkable for a cheerful temper and vivacity of conversation. His abilities were of a practical cast, and the services he rendered to his country were more solid than brilliant. Throughout the struggle for independence, he was esteemed by his countrymen as a true patriot, and on account of his high social position, he acquired more influence than we might suppose him to have possessed, from the paucity of the records of his services. His sacrifices for the cause of his heart were neither few nor far between. Mr. Rodney was a friend to young men whom he discovered to be filled with the right kind of ambition.

GEORGE READ,

THE colleague of Rodney and McKean was born in Cecil county, Maryland, in 1734. Soon after that event his father removed to Newcastle county, Delaware. GEORGE READ received his education under the superintendence of the Rev. Dr. Allison, and then, at the age of seventeen, commenced the study of the law in Philadelphia. In the year 1753 he was admitted to the bar. In 1754 he settled in Newcastle, Delaware, and commenced the pratice of the law. In 1763, he succeeded John Ross as attorney-general of the State. He held this office till he was elected to Congress in 1775, when he resigned it. In 1765 he was elected a member of the Assembly of Delaware, which station he continued to occupy for twelve years in succession. In the mean time, however, Mr. Read strenuously supported every measure, and was very conspicuous in resisting every encroachment of British tyranny. In 1774 he was elected by the General Assembly of Delaware, together with Cæsar Rodney and Thomas McKean, to represent the State in the first Congress which met at Philadelphia. From this period he continued to represent the State of Delaware in Congress, during the whole of the Revolutionary war. He had previously opposed the declaration as a premature measure; but when it was sanctioned by a large majority of Congress, he gave a ready acquiescence. In September, 1776, Mr. Read was elected president of the convention which formed the first constitution of Delaware. In 1782 he was appointed one of the judges of the court of appeals, in admiralty cases, for the state of Delaware. In 1787 he was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States.

Mr. Read continued in the Senate of the United States till September, 1793, when he was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court of the State of Delaware. He performed the duties of this office with great ability and integrity, till the autumn of 1798, when his long life of public usefulness was terminated by a short and sudden illness.

In person, Mr. Read was above the middle height, portly, erect, and dignified in bearing. Energy and judgment were the prominent features of his character. The many marks of the confidence of his fellow-citizens which he received during his useful career, evinced their high estimate of his abilities and integrity.

THOMAS McKEAN.

Thomas McKean was born on the 19th of March, 1734, in Chester county, in the then province of Pennsylvania. His father, William McKean, was a native of Ireland, but married in this country. The subject of this memoir was, at an early age, placed under the tuition of the Rev. Francis Allison, D. D., a man of distinguished learning, and who conducted the most celebrated academy in the province. In that institution Thomas McKean acquired a sound knowledge of the languages, and was instructed in the practical branches of the mathematics and moral philosophy. He proceeded to Newcastle, Delaware, and read law in the office of David Kinney, Esquire. Having been admitted to the bar, he continued to reside at Newcastle, where he soon acquired a solid reputation, and obtained full business. Extending his practice into Pennsylvania, he was, in the year 1757, admitted to the bar of the supreme court of that province. During the early part of his career, he was particularly remarkable for his attentive habits of business, and for his devotion to the acquisition of knowledge, and thus laid the foundation of his subsequent usefulness and distinction. In the year 1762, Mr. McKean was elected a member of assembly for Newcastle county, and was annually returned for eleven successive years, until his removal to Philadelphia as a place of residence; and even after that removal, so great was the confidence reposed in him by the freeholders of Newcastle county, that they elected him annually for six years more, though he frequently communicated to them through the newspapers his desire to decline the honour. At the end of this period, after he had represented Delaware in Congress, and become chief justice of Pennsylvania, an occurrence took place of so interesting a character, that we think it worthy of being related to our readers. On the day of the general election in Delaware, in October, 1779, he waited on his constituents at Newcastle, and after a long address on the situation and prospects of the United States, in which he displayed the wisdom of the statesman and the energy of the patriot, he desired to be no longer considered one of the candidates for the State legislature, assigning reasons which were received as satisfactory. Soon after he had retired, a committee of the electors present waited on him, informed him that they would excuse him from serving in the Assembly, but requested, in the name of the electors, that as the times were critical, and they could fully

rely on his judgment, he would recommend seven persons in whom they might confide, as representatives. So singular a method of exhibiting their confidence in him, could not but excite his surprise; however, he instantly acknowledged the compliment, and desired the committee to acquaint his fellow-citizens, that he thanked them for the honour intended him, but as he knew not only *seven* but *seventy* of the gentlemen then attending the election, whom he believed to be worthy of their votes, he felt assured they would not, on further reflection, subject him to the hazard of giving offence, by the preference he must show if he complied with their requests; and hoped to be excused. The committee having left him, soon returned, and stated that the electors after hearing his reply, had unanimously reiterated their request, and declared that a compliance by him would offend no one. He thereupon, instantly, though reluctantly, wrote down seven names, and handed them to the committee, with the observation that his conduct would at least evidence a reciprocity of confidence between them. The election proceeded harmoniously, and resulted in the choice of the seven gentlemen whom he had thus named. He was afterward accustomed to speak of this transaction as one of the most gratifying circumstances of his life.

Upon the adoption of the first act of the British Parliament, imposing "stamp duties" on the colonies, a Congress of committees from the different legislative assemblies was, upon the suggestion of the assembly of Massachusetts Bay, convened at New York, in October, 1765. Of this Congress, Mr. McKean was a representative from Delaware, and was the surviving member. He was one of the committee appointed to draft an address to the House of Commons of Great Britain. At this early period he displayed, in support of the rights of his country, that unbending firmness and energy which illustrated his subsequent public conduct. On his return to New Castle, he, with his colleague, Mr. Rodney, received the unanimous thanks of the assembly of Delaware. He continued to be engaged in various public employments, and, in 1765, was appointed a justice of the court of common pleas and quarter sessions, and of the orphans' court for the county of New Castle. In November term, 1765, and in the February term, 1766, he sat on the bench which ordered all the officers of the court to proceed in their several vocations, as usual, on *unstamped paper*. This was done accordingly, and it is believed this was the first court that made such an order in any of the colonies.

In relation to all the public events which soon after followed, Mr. McKean's opinions were firm and decided. He was uniform and

energetic in resisting the usurpations of the British crown. Immediately after the second attempt of the mother country to raise a revenue from the colonies without their consent, which was made by an act imposing a duty on tea, &c., a correspondence took place among leading and influential characters, in most of the colonies, who concerted measures of opposition to this proceeding, and procured a meeting of delegates from their respective houses of Assembly, at Philadelphia, in September, 1774. Mr. McKean took an active part in this affair, as he had done in 1765, and was appointed a representative of Delaware, though he had, a short time before, removed his residence to Philadelphia. At the opening of this Congress, whose conduct proved it the most glorious assemblage which the world ever knew, Mr. McKean appeared as a representative from Delaware. He was annually returned as a member, until the independence of his country was formally acknowledged by the treaty of peace in 1783.

Two circumstances are peculiar in his history as connected with this period. He was the only man who was, without intermission of time, a member of the Revolutionary Congress from the day of its opening, in 1774, till the preliminaries of the peace of 1783 were signed. The various public duties of different members, with other circumstances, concurred to produce this fact. Though he was also engaged in other important public affairs, yet his residence at Philadelphia induced his constituents to continue to return him. The other circumstance to which we refer is, that while he represented the State of *Delaware* in this Congress, until 1783, and was in 1781 president of Congress, as will be presently stated, yet from July, 1777, he held the appointment and executed the duties of chief-justice of *Pennsylvania*. Each of these States claimed him as her own; and for each were his talents faithfully exerted.

Mr. McKean was particularly active and useful in procuring the declaration of independence, 1776. Delaware was represented in Congress by Cæsar Rodney, George Read, and Thomas McKean. Mr. Rodney was absent when the question was discussed in committee of the whole, and Mr. Read in committee had voted against the declaration. Delaware was thus divided. All the other States, except Pennsylvania, had voted in favour of the measure, and it therefore became important to the friends of the declaration that the votes of these two States should be secured. Mr. McKean immediately, at his own expense, sent an express for Mr. Rodney, who, in consequence of it, arrived in Philadelphia just as Congress was assembling on the morning of the 4th of July.

Shortly after the declaration of independence, Mr. McKean was appointed colonel of a regiment of associators of the city of Philadelphia, and marched at the head of them to support General Washington, until a flying camp of ten thousand men was raised. On his return to Philadelphia he found he had been elected a member of the convention for forming a constitution for the State of Delaware. He proceeded to New Castle and wrote in a tavern, without a book or any assistance, the constitution which was afterward adopted.

On the 10th of July, 1781, he was elected president of Congress. The following extracts from the journal will illustrate this part of our subject, and, it is thought, will prove interesting to the reader:—

"October 23, 1781, the secretary laid before Congress a letter from the president in the words following:

"SIR—I beg you to remind Congress that when they did me the honour of electing me president, and before I assumed the chair, I informed them that as chief-justice of Pennsylvania, I should be under the necessity of attending the supreme court of that State in the latter end of September, or, at farthest, in October. That court will be held to-day. I must, therefore, request that they will be pleased to proceed to the choice of another president.

"I am, sir, with much respect, your most obedient humble servant,

"THOMAS McKEAN.

"*Charles Thomson*, Secretary of Congress."

"Whereupon, resolved, That the resignation of Mr. McKean be accepted.

"Ordered, That the election of a president be postponed until to-morrow."

"October 24, 1781. On motion of Mr. Witherspoon, seconded by Mr. Montgomery,

"Resolved, *unanimously*, That Mr. McKean be requested to resume the chair, and act as president, until the first Monday in November next, the resolution of yesterday notwithstanding."

"November 5th, 1781. Congress proceeded to the election of a president, and the ballot being taken, the Honourable John Hanson was elected."

"November 7th, 1781. Resolved, That the thanks of Congress be given to the Honourable Thomas McKean, late president of Congress, in testimony of their approbation of his conduct in the chair, and in the execution of public business."

His commission, as chief-justice of Pennsylvania, was dated July 28th, 1777. During the progress of the Revolution, Philadelphia

being the seat of government of the States, and an object of peculiar watchfulness on the part of the enemy, the just performance of Mr. McKean's judicial functions required not only the learning of the lawyer, but the unyielding spirit of the patriot. We find him proclaiming from the bench the law of justice and his country with distinguished learning, ability, and integrity. Regardless of the powers of the crown of Great Britain, he did not hesitate to hazard his own life by causing to be punished, even unto death, those who were proved to be traitors to their country, while he demonstrated that popular excitement against individuals accused of offences, could not in the slightest degree divert him from the sound and inflexible discharge of his public duty. It was energy, tempered with justice and humanity, that carried us triumphantly through the terrible conflict.

Having passed through the trying scenes of the Revolution with the well-earned and undisputed reputation of being one of the most unwavering and efficient Whigs of the times, he devoted himself to the discharge of the duties of chief-justice until the year 1799, when he was elected governor of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, and he continued to discharge the duties of that office for nine years with great ability. In 1808 he retired from public life, and the remainder of his days were passed in the peaceful pursuits of science and literature. Mr. McKean died at his mansion in Philadelphia, on the 24th of June, 1817, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

In person, Mr. McKean was tall, erect, and well formed. His countenance expressed the firmness and intelligence for which he was distinguished, and his manners were dignified and impressive. He was a man of vast influence in his time, and his proudest eulogy may be, that he ever sought to use that influence for the advancement of true principles. He was an effective speaker, and his state papers are marked by a singular force of language.

SAMUEL CHASE.

THE leading advocate of independence in Maryland was Samuel Chase. He was born in Somerset county, Maryland, on the 17th of April, 1741. His father, a learned clergyman, instructed him in the ancient classics, and subsequently placed him at Annapolis as a student of law. He was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty.

His talents, industry, intrepidity, imposing stature, sonorous voice, and fluent and energetic elocution, raised him to eminence in a very few years. Having become a member of the colonial legislature, he distinguished himself by his bold opposition to the royal governor and the court party. He took the lead in denouncing and resisting the famous stamp act. His revolutionary spirit, his oratory and reputation, placed him at the head of the active adversaries of the British government in his State.

The Maryland convention of the 22d of June, 1774, appointed Mr. Chase to attend the meeting of the general Congress at Philadelphia in September of that year. He was also present and conspicuous at the session of December following, and in the subsequent congresses during the most critical periods of the Revolution. That of 1776 deputed him on a mission to Canada, along with Dr. Franklin, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and the Rev. John Carroll, afterward Catholic Archbishop of Baltimore. It was Mr. Chase who denounced to Congress the Rev. Dr. Zubly, a delegate from Georgia, as a traitor to the American cause, and forced him to a precipitate and ignominious flight. He signed the Declaration of Independence with promptitude, and was an active and able member of Congress almost throughout the war; at the end of which he returned to the practice of his profession. In June, 1783, the legislature of Maryland sent him to London, as a commissioner, to recover stock of the Bank of England and large sums of money which belonged to the State. He remained in England nearly a year, during which time he put the claim in a train of adjustment. There he passed much of his time in the society of the most eminent statesmen and lawyers.

In the year 1791, Mr. Chase accepted the appointment of chief-justice of the general court of Maryland. Five years afterward, President Washington made him an associate-judge of the supreme court of the United States. Political cases of deep interest having been tried when he presided in the circuit courts, and his conduct having given much displeasure to the democratic party, he was impeached by the House of Representatives at Washington. The trial of the judge before the Senate is memorable on account of the excitement which it produced, the ability with which he was defended, and the nature of his acquittal. A full report of it has been published. He continued to exercise his judicial functions with the highest reputation until the year 1811, in which his health failed. He expired June 19 of that year.

Judge Chase possessed a high degree of moral courage, and never

wavered in the discharge of what he believed to be his duty. His decisions were generally sagacious. He was a powerful orator, and at the bar had few superiors in his time.

WILLIAM PACA.

William Paca was born October 31, 1740, and was the second son of a gentleman of large estate, who resided in Hartford county, Maryland. After receiving his degree of bachelor of arts at the College of Philadelphia in 1759, he studied law, and, when admitted to the bar, established himself at Annapolis. In 1771 he was elected a representative of the county in the legislature, and supported the cause of the people against the proprietary government of the province. He was a member of the first national Congress of 1774. He was successively re-elected to the same station until 1778, when he retired, and in the same year, was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court of his State.

In 1780, Congress appointed Mr. Paca chief judge of the court of appeals in prize and admiralty cases. In 1782 he was chosen governor of his State. At the close of the year he retired to private life. In 1786 he was again raised to the chief-magistracy, and continued in it for a year. On the organization of the federal government in 1789 he was appointed by President Washington judge of the district court of the United States for Maryland. In that office he died, in 1799, in the sixtieth year of his age. Judge Paca was a man of talent and cultivated mind, of graceful address and attractive manners, of moral worth and political integrity.

THOMAS STONE.

Thomas Stone was descended from William Stone, Governor of Maryland during the protectorate of Cromwell. He received a thorough and classical education, then studied law, and began the practice of his profession in Fredericktown, Maryland. His reputation for learning and patriotism procured his election to the general Congress of the colonies, and he took his seat in that body in

May, 1775. That he faithfully discharged the duties of his position is established by the fact of his repeated re-election. Soon after the delaration of independence, to which he had subscribed his name, he was one of the committee appointed by Congress to prepare articles of confederation. After the plan reported was agreed to, Mr. Stone declined a re-election, but became a member of the Maryland legislature, in which he greatly contributed to procure favour for the system adopted. In 1783 he was again sent to Congress. He then finally retired, and engaged actively in the duties of his profession; but in 1787 the death of his wife engendered a deep and abiding melancholy. His health declined; and, on the fifth of October of the same year, he suddenly expired, in the forty-fifth year of his age, when on the point of embarking for England.

Mr. Stone possessed an amiable and affectionate disposition, which the stern cares of public life could not suppress. He was generally beloved and esteemed for his private virtues. His abilities as a lawyer were of a high order, and his information was of great service in the first organization of our national government.

CHARLES CARROLL.

He who reads the names affixed to the Declaration, will be struck with the peculiar addition to the name of Charles Carroll, one of the delegates from Maryland. It reads "Charles Carroll of Carrollton," and was so written by the patriotic delegate, in order to leave no doubt as to which Charles Carroll it was who pledged his "life, fortune, and sacred honour" to the cause of independence. Mr. Carroll was born at Annapolis, Maryland, on the 20th of September, 1737. His father was a wealthy gentleman, and a very decided Roman Catholic. Charles was sent to France, to obtain a thorough education, in accordance with the doctrines and practices of the Church of Rome; and, in 1765, he returned to Maryland, a highly accomplished man. He immediately began to take an active part in public affairs, and acquired extensive reputation and influence. At the commencement of the colonial troubles, Mr. Carroll appeared as a decided supporter of the rights of his countrymen. His zeal increased as the danger of open conflict became more imminent. In July, 1776 he was elected to a seat in the Continental

Congress, where he advocated and signed the Declaration of Independence.

Mr. Carroll was an active member of Congress. His varied information and willingness to make every sacrifice for his country caused him to be influential and popular. When a committee was appointed to proceed to Canada and endeavour to rouse the Canadians to aid the other patriots, he was chosen as a person fitted by talents and religion to effect the object. But the committee failed. He retired from Congress in 1778, but continued to take an active part in public affairs, particularly in the councils of his native State. In 1789, Mr. Carroll was elected United States Senator, and he served in that capacity until 1801, when he retired from public life. From that period till his death, he lived in the enjoyment of accumulated honours and domestic happiness. This distinguished patriot died on the 14th of November, 1832, at the age of ninety-four years. He was the last survivor of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and in spite of his extreme old age, the news of his death was received by his countrymen with many demonstrations of sorrow.

GEORGE WYTHE.

The name of Chancellor Wythe stands high in the history of Virginia, and his career illustrates the triumph of a great mind over mean associations. He was born in the county of Elizabeth City in 1726. His father was a respectable farmer, and his mother was a woman of uncommon knowledge and strength of mind. She taught the Latin language, with which she was intimately acquainted, and which she spoke fluently, to her son; but his education was in other respects very much neglected. At school he learned only to read and write, and to apply the five first rules of arithmetic. His parents having died before he attained the age of twenty-one years, like many unthinking youths he commenced a career of dissipation and intemperance, and did not disengage himself from it before he reached the age of thirty. He then bitterly lamented the loss of those nine years of his life, and of the learning which during that period he might have acquired. But never did any man more effectually redeem his time. From the moment when he resolved on reformation, he devoted himself most intensely to his studies. Without the assistance of any instructor he acquired an accurate knowledge of

the Greek, and he read the best authors in that as well as in the Latin language. He made himself also a profound lawyer, becoming perfectly versed in the civil and common law, and in the statutes of Great Britain and Virginia. He was also a skilful mathematician, and was well acquainted with moral and natural philosophy. The wild and thoughtless youth was now converted into a sedate and prudent man, delighting entirely in literary pursuits. At this period he acquired that attachment to the Christian religion, which, though his faith was afterward shaken by the difficulties suggested by skeptical writers, never altogether forsook him, and toward the close of his life was renovated and firmly established. Though he never connected himself with any sect of Christians, yet for many years he constantly attended church, and the Bible was his favourite book.

Having obtained a license to practice law, he took his station at the bar of the old general court with many other great men, whose merit has been the boast of Virginia. Among them he was conspicuous not for his eloquence, or ingenuity in maintaining a bad cause, but for his sound sense and learning, and rigid attachment to justice. He never undertook the support of a cause which he knew to be bad, or which did not appear to be just and honourable. He was even known, when he doubted the statement of his client, to insist upon his making an affidavit to its truth; and in every instance, where it was in his power, he examined the witnesses as to the facts intended to be proved, before he brought the suit or agreed to defend it.

When the time arrived which Heaven had destined for the separation of the confederated republic of America from the dominion of Great Britain, Mr. Wythe was one of the instruments in the hands of Providence for accomplishing that great work. He took a decided part in the very first movements of opposition. Not content merely to fall in with the wishes of his fellow-citizens, he assisted in persuading them not to submit to British tyranny. With a prophetic mind he looked forward to the event of an approaching war, and resolutely prepared to encounter all its evils rather than to resign his attachment to liberty. With his pupil and friend, Thomas Jefferson, he roused the people to resistance. As the controversy grew warm, his zeal became proportionally fervent. He joined a corps of volunteers, accustomed himself to military discipline, and was ready to march at the call of his country. But that country, to whose interests he was so sincerely attached, had other duties of more importance for him to perform. It was his destiny to obtain distinction as a statesman, legislator, and judge, and not as a warrior.

Before the war commenced, he was elected a member of the Virginia Assembly. After having been for some time speaker of the house of burgesses, he was sent by the members of that body as one of their delegates to the Congress which assembled May 18, 1775, and did not separate until it had declared the independence of America. In that most enlightened and patriotic assembly he possessed no small share of influence. He was one of those who signed the memorable Declaration. But the voice of his native State soon called him from the busy scene where his talents had been so nobly exerted. By a resolution of the General Assembly of Virginia, dated November 5, 1776, Thomas Jefferson, Edmund Pendleton, George Wythe, George Mason, and Thomas Ludwell Lee were appointed a committee to revise the laws of the commonwealth. This was a work of very great labour and difficulty. The committee of revisors did not disappoint the expectations of their country. In the commencement of their labours they were deprived of the assistance which might have been received from the abilities of Messrs. Mason and Lee, by the death of the one and the resignation of the other. The remaining three prosecuted their task with indefatigable activity and zeal, and June 18, 1779, made a report of one hundred and twenty-six bills, which they had prepared. This report showed an intimate knowledge of the great principles of legislation, and reflected the highest honour upon those who formed it. The people of Virginia are indebted to it for almost all the best parts of their present code of laws. Among the changes then made in the monarchical system of jurisprudence, which had been previously in force, the most important were effected by the act abolishing the right of primogeniture, and directing the real estate of persons dying intestate to be equally divided among their children, or other nearest relations; by the act for regulating conveyances, which converted all estates in tail into fees simple, and thus destroyed one of the supports of the proud and overbearing distinctions of particular families; and finally by the act for the establishment of religious freedom. Had all the proposed bills been adopted by the legislature, other changes of great importance would have taken place. A wise and universal system of education would have been established, giving to the children of the poorest citizen the opportunity of attaining science, and thus of rising to honour and extensive usefulness. The proportion between crimes and punishments would have been better adjusted, and malefactors would have been made to promote the interests of the commonwealth by their labour. But the public spirit of the Assembly could not keep pace with the liberal views of Wythe.

After finishing the task of new modelling the laws, he was employed to carry them into effect according to their true intent and spirit by being placed in the difficult office of judge of a court of equity. He was appointed one of the three judges of the high court of chancery, and afterward sole chancellor of Virginia, in which station he continued until the day of his death, during a period of more than twenty years. His extraordinary disinterestedness and patriotism were now most conspicuously displayed. Although the salary allowed him by the commonwealth was extremely scanty, yet he contentedly lived upon it even in the expensive city of Richmond, and devoted his whole time to the service of his country. With that contempt of wealth which so remarkably distinguished him from other men, he made a present of one-half of his land in Elizabeth City to his nephew, and the purchase-money of the remainder, which he sold, was not paid him for many years. While he resided in Williamsburg he accepted the professorship of law in the College of William and Mary, but resigned it when his duties as chancellor required his removal to Richmond. His resources were therefore small; yet with his liberal and charitable disposition he continued by means of that little to do much good, and always to preserve his independence. This he accomplished by temperance and economy.

He was a member of the Virginia convention which in June, 1788, considered the proposed constitution of the United States. During the debates he acted, for the most part, as chairman. Being convinced that the confederation was defective in the energy necessary to preserve the union and liberty of America, this venerable patriot, then beginning to bow under the weight of years, rose in the convention, and exerted his voice, almost too feeble to be heard, in contending for a system, on the acceptance of which he conceived the happiness of his country to depend. He was ever attached to the constitution, on account of the principles of freedom and justice which it contained; and in every change of affairs he was steady in supporting the rights of man. His political opinions were always firmly republican. Though in 1798 and 1799 he was opposed to the measures which were adopted in the administration of President Adams, and reprobated the alien and sedition laws and the raising of the army, yet he never yielded a moment to the rancour of party spirit, nor permitted the difference of opinion to interfere with his private friendships. He presided twice successively in the college of electors of Virginia, and twice voted for a president whose political principles coincided with his own. After a short but very excruciating sickness, he died June 8, 1806, in the eighty-first year

of his age. It was supposed that he was poisoned, but the person suspected was acquitted by a jury of his countrymen. By his last will and testament he bequeathed his valuable library and philosophical apparatus to his friend, Mr. Jefferson, and distributed the remainder of his little property among the grand-children of his sister, and the slaves whom he had set free. He thus wished to liberate the blacks not only from slavery, but from the temptations to vice. He even condescended to impart to them instruction; and he personally taught the Greek language to a little negro boy, who died a few days before his preceptor.

Chancellor Wythe was indeed an extraordinary man. With all his great qualities he possessed a soul replete with benevolence, and his private life is full of anecdotes which prove that it is seldom that a kinder and warmer heart throbs in the breast of a human being. He was of a social and affectionate disposition. From the time when he was emancipated from the follies of youth, he sustained an unspotted reputation. His integrity was never even suspected. While he practised at the bar, when offers of an extraordinary but well-merited compensation were made to him by clients whose causes he had gained, he would say that the labourer was indeed worthy of his hire, but the lawful fee was all he had a right to demand, and as to presents, he did not want and would not accept them from any man. This grandeur of mind he uniformly preserved to the end of his life. His manner of living was plain and abstemious. He found the means of suppressing the desire of wealth by limiting the number of his wants. An ardent desire to promote the happiness of his fellow-men by supporting the cause of justice and maintaining and establishing their rights appears to have been his ruling passion.

RICHARD HENRY LEE.

Richard Henry Lee, the bold mover of the Declaration, was born at Stratford, Westmoreland county, Virginia, on the 20th of January, 1732. After a course of tuition in his father's house, he was sent to the academy of Wakefield, in Yorkshire, England. He there became distinguished for his classic acquirements.

He returned to his native country when about in his nineteenth year, and, his fortune rendering it unnecessary for him to devote himself to any profession, his time was most usefully spent in the

improvement of his mind. The first endeavour which he made to serve his country, was in the capacity of captain of the volunteer companies which were raised in 1755, for the purpose of aiding the expedition under General Braddock. He was disappointed, however, in his patriotic desires, Braddock having refused to accept any more assistance from the provincials than he was obliged to.

In his twenty-fifth year, Lee was appointed a justice of the peace for his native county—an office then given only to persons of the highest character, and generally but to persons of considerable experience. Not long afterward, he was chosen a delegate to the house of burgesses, from Westmoreland county, and thus commenced the career of politics, for which he was peculiarly fitted, both by his natural disposition and talents, and the studies in which he was versed. Works of civil and political morality, history, the principles of the civil law, and the laws of his own country, had occupied the principal share of his time, while he had not neglected the more elegant departments of polite literature; and he soon obtained distinction in debate. His voice was always raised in support of those principles which were advocated by the republican or anti-aristocratic portion of the legislature; and when, in 1764, the declaratory act was passed in the British Parliament, in pursuance of the right claimed by that body of taxing America, he was the first to bring forward the subject to the notice of the Assembly of which he was a member. A special committee having, in consequence, been appointed to draught an address to the king, a memorial to the House of Lords, and a remonstrance to the House of Commons, Mr. Lee was placed on it, and selected to prepare the two first papers. These, accordingly, proceeded from his pen, and, in the words of his biographer and grandson, "contain the genuine principles of the Revolution, and abound in the firm and eloquent sentiments of freemen."

In 1765, Patrick Henry introduced in the Virginia legislature his famous resolutions against the stamp act, which had just been passed by the British Parliament. Mr. Lee lent Mr. Henry's motion his powerful and most zealous assistance. Not long after it had been carried, in spite of the efforts of the influential party, who advocated the measures of the mother country, Mr. Lee, among other methods which he took to prevent the operations of the stamp act, planned and effected an association "for the purpose of deterring all persons from accepting the office of vender of stamp paper, and for awing into silence and inactivity those who might still be attached to the supremacy of the mother country, and disposed to advocate the right of colony taxation." The association bound themselves to

exert every faculty to accomplish the end for which they had united together, "at every hazard, and paying no regard to danger or to death." In consequence of the opposition the stamp act encountered in the colonies, the British ministry were forced to repeal it; but they did so with a reservation of the right of the mother country "to bind the colonies in all cases whatever."

In 1767, Parliament having passed two acts, one laying a tax on tea, and the other requiring the legislature of the colony "to make provision for quartering a part of the regular army," Mr. Lee exerted himself in every way to excite a spirit of hostility to them, perceiving, as he did, their despotic tendency, and feeling, even then, that a struggle for freedom must eventually take place. It would be impossible for us, consistently with our limits, to enter into a minute detail of the unceasing efforts of Mr. Lee's patriotism between this period and the assembling of the first Congress in Philadelphia; we can only mention that the celebrated plan which was adopted in 1773, by the house of burgesses, for the formation of corresponding committees to be organized by the legislature of the several colonies, and also that of corresponding clubs or societies, among the "lovers of liberty" throughout the provinces, for the purpose of diffusing among the people a correct knowledge of their rights, of keeping them informed of every attempt to infringe them, and of rousing a spirit of resistance to arbitrary measures—both originated with him. The same idea had, about the same time, been conceived and proposed by Samuel Adams, in Massachusetts—a circumstance which has occasioned a dispute concerning the merit of having given birth to measures which were the forerunners of the general Congress.

In 1774, the first general Congress assembled at Philadelphia, and Mr. Lee attended it as one of the Virginia delegation. His labours during this session, as throughout his whole congressional career, until his zeal and activity were partially arrested by bodily infirmities, were unremitting. Of all the leading committees—those to prepare an address to the King of England, to the people of Britain, and to the colonies, and those to state the rights and grievances of the colonies, and to carry into effect the resolution of non-intercourse with Great Britain—he was a member; and from his pen proceeded the memorial of Congress to the people of British America. In the following year, he was unanimously elected by the people of Westmoreland county to the Assembly of Virginia, by which he was sent to the second Congress. At this period, hostilities were in full operation between the two countries, and one of the first acts of the new Congress was to invest George Washington with the command

of its armies. His commission and instructions were furnished by Mr. Lee, as chairman of the committee appointed for that purpose. The other committees on which he served in this session were those named to prepare munitions of war, to encourage the manufacture of saltpetre and arms, and to devise a plan for the more rapid diffusion of intelligence throughout the colonies. The second address of Congress to the people of Great Britain—a composition unsurpassed by any of the state papers of the time—was written by him this session. But the most important of his services, in this second congressional term, was his motion, June 7, 1776, "that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." His speech on introducing this bold and glorious measure, was one of the most brilliant displays of eloquence ever heard on the floor.

From this great effort we make the following extract to illustrate the style of Mr. Lee:—

"Who doubts then that a declaration of independence will procure us allies? All nations are desirous of procuring by commerce the production of our exuberant soil; they will visit our ports, hitherto closed by the monopoly of insatiable England. They are no less eager to contemplate the reduction of her hated power; they all loathe her barbarous dominion; their succours will evince to our brave countrymen the gratitude they bear them for having been the first to shake the foundation of this Colossus. Foreign princes wait only for the extinction of all hazard of reconciliation to throw off their present reserve. If this measure is useful, it is no less becoming our dignity. America has arrived at a degree of power which assigns her a place among independent nations. We are not less entitled to it than the English themselves. If they have wealth, so have we; if they are brave, so are we; if they are more numerous, our population, through the incredible fruitfulness of our chaste wives, will soon equal theirs; if they have men of renown, as well in peace as in war, we likewise have such; for political revolutions usually produce great, brave, and generous spirits. From what we have already achieved in these painful beginnings, it is easy to presume what we shall hereafter accomplish, for experience is the source of sage counsels, and liberty is the mother of great men. Have you not seen the enemy driven from Lexington, by thirty thousand citizens armed and assembled in one day? Already their most celebrated generals have yielded in Boston to the skill of ours; already

their seamen, repulsed from our coasts, wander over the ocean, where they are the sport of the tempest and the prey of famine. Let us hail the favourable omen, and fight, not for the sake of knowing on what terms we are to be the slaves of England, but to secure to ourselves a free existence, to found a just and independent government. Animated by liberty, the Greeks repulsed the innumerable army of Persians; sustained by the love of independence, the Swiss and the Dutch humbled the power of Austria by memorable defeats, and conquered a rank among nations. But the sun of America also shines upon the heads of the brave; the point of our weapons is no less formidable than theirs; here also the same union prevails, the same contempt of danger and of death in asserting the cause of our country.

"Why then do we longer delay; why still deliberate? *Let this most happy day give birth to the American Republic.* Let her arise, not to devastate and conquer, but to re-establish the reign of peace and of the laws. The eyes of Europe are fixed upon us! she demands of us a living example of freedom, that may contrast, by the felicity of the citizens, with the ever-increasing tyranny which desolates her polluted shores. She invites us to prepare an asylum where the unhappy may find solace, and the persecuted, repose. She entreats us to cultivate a propitious soil, where that generous plant, which first sprang up and grew in England, but is now withered by the poisonous blasts of Scottish tyranny, may revive and flourish, sheltering under its salubrious and interminable shade all the unfortunate of the human race. This is the end presaged by so many omens, by our first victories, by the present ardour and union, by the flight of Howe and the pestilence which broke out among Dunmore's people, by the very winds which baffled the enemy's fleets and transports, and that terrible tempest which engulfed seven hundred vessels upon the coast of Newfoundland. If we are not this day wanting in our duty to the country, the names of the American legislators will be exalted, in the eyes of posterity, to a level with those of Theseus, Lycurgus, of Romulus, of Numa, of the three Williams of Nassau, and of all those whose memory has been, and will be for ever dear to virtuous men and good citizens."

After a protracted debate, it was determined, June 10, to postpone the consideration of this resolution until the first Monday of the ensuing month of July; but a committee was ordered to be immediately appointed to prepare a Declaration of Independence. Of this committee he would have been the chairman, according to parliamentary regulations with regard to the original mover of an

approved resolution; but he was obliged on the same day (the 10th) to leave Congress, and hasten to Virginia, in consequence of the dangerous illness of some of the members of his family. Mr. Jefferson was substituted for him, and drew up the Declaration. In August following, Mr. Lee returned to his seat in Congress, which he continued to occupy until June, 1777, pursuing, with unabated ardour, the path which was to lead to the freedom and happiness of his country. In that month he solicited leave of absence, and returned to Virginia. This step was taken on account of the delicate state of his health, and also for the purpose of clearing his reputation from certain stains which malice or overheated zeal had thrown upon it, which he effectually did, by demanding an inquiry into the allegations against him, from the Assembly of his native State. The result of this inquiry was a most honourable acquittal, accompanied by a vote of thanks to him for the fidelity and zeal of his patriotic services, which the speaker of the house, the venerable George Wythe, in communicating it to him, prefaced by a warm and flattering eulogy. In August, 1778, he was again elected to Congress, but was forced by his declining health to withdraw in a great degree from the arduous labours to which he had hitherto devoted himself. In 1780 he retired from his seat, and declined returning to it until 1784. In the interval he served in the Assembly of Virginia, and, at the head of the militia of his county, protected it from the incursions of the enemy. In 1784 he was chosen president of Congress by a unanimous vote, but retired at the end of the year; and, in 1786, was re-elected to the Virginia Assembly. In the convention which adopted the present constitution of the United States, Mr. Lee joined in the vote of Congress which submitted the plan they proposed to conventions of the people of the States. He was, however, hostile to it himself, thinking that it had too great a tendency to consolidation. When it was adopted, he and Mr. Grayson were chosen the first senators from Virginia under it, and, in that capacity, he moved and carried several amendments. In 1792 his health forced him to retire from public life, when he was again honoured by the Virginia legislature with a vote of thanks. He died June 19, 1794.

The classic pen of William Wirt has thus delineated the character of Mr. Lee :—

"Mr. Lee had studied the classics in the true spirit of criticism. His taste had that delicate touch which seized with intuitive certainty every beauty of an author, and his genius that native affinity which combined them without an effort. Into every walk of literature and science, he had carried this mind of exquisite selection,

and brought it back to the business of life, crowned with every light of learning, and decked with every wreath that all the muses and all the graces could entwine. Nor did those light decorations constitute the whole value of its freight. He possessed a rich store of historical and political knowledge, with an activity of observation, and a certainty of judgment, that turned that knowledge to the very best account. He was not a lawyer by profession; but he understood thoroughly the constitution both of the mother country and of her colonies; and the elements also of the civil and municipal law. Thus while his eloquence was free from those stiff and technical restraints, which the habits of forensic speaking are so apt to generate, he had all the legal learning which is necessary to a statesman. He reasoned well, and declaimed freely and splendidly. Such was his promptitude, that he required no preparation for debate. He was ready for any subject as soon as it was announced; and his speech was so copious, so rich, so mellifluous, set off with such cadence of voice, and such captivating grace of action, that, while you listened to him, you desired to hear nothing superior, and, indeed, thought him perfect."

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

The date of the birth of Benjamin Harrison is not accurately known. He was a student in the College of William and Mary, when his father and two sisters were simultaneously killed by a stroke of lightning. He went early into public life, (in which his ancestors had long been distinguished,) commencing his political career in 1764, as a member of the legislature of his native province. The eminence which he acquired in that capacity, combined with the influence naturally accruing from fortune and distinguished family connections, rendered it an object for the royal government to enlist him in their favour; and he was accordingly offered a seat in the executive council of Virginia—a station analogous to that of a privy-counsellor in England. This was a tempting bait to an ambitious young man; but as, even at that time, the measures of the British ministry indicated an oppressive spirit, he refused the proffered dignity, and always exerted his influence for the benefit of the people.

When the time came for active resistance to the arbitrary acts of the government, Mr. Harrison was not found backward. In the first

general Congress of 1774, he was a delegate, and consecrated his name, by affixing it to that Declaration which can never be forgotten as long as liberty is worshipped. It is related concerning him, that, while signing the instrument, he happened to stand near Mr. Gerry of Massachusetts, who was of a slender and spare form, while he was very corpulent; and, turning to him, after laying down the pen, he said, in a facetious way, "When the time of hanging comes, I shall have the advantage over you. It will be over with me in a minute, but you will be kicking in the air half an hour after I am gone." Mr. Harrison was particularly useful as chairman of the board of war. After his resignation of his seat, in 1777, he was elected to the house of burgesses of Virginia, of which he was immediately chosen speaker. This situation he occupied until the year 1782, when he was made chief-magistrate of the state, and was twice re-elected. In 1785, he retired into private life, but, in 1788, became a member of the convention of Virginia that ratified the present constitution of the United States. Of the first committee appointed by this body, that of privileges and elections, he was chosen chairman; but his age and infirmities prevented him from taking an active part in the debates. He, however, advocated the adoption of the constitution, with certain amendments. He died of the gout in 1791.

Patriotism was the virtue that threw a lustre upon the life of Benjamin Harrison; his love of country never quailed in the hour of gloom, or hesitated at any sacrifice. But energy, decision, and sound judgment were also remarkable features in his character.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

A BIOGRAPHY of the illustrious author of the Declaration will be found among those of the Presidents of the United States.

THOMAS NELSON, JUN.

THOMAS NELSON, JUN., was descended from one of the most respectable families among the early settlers of Virginia, and was born at York, December 26, 1738.

When in his fifteenth year, according to the prevailing fashion

among gentlemen of affluence at the South, he was sent to England to receive his education. His first appearance in public life was in 1774, as a member of the house of burgesses. He was a member of the conventions of 1774 and 1775; and evinced such a boldness and promptitude in opposing British aggression, as to alarm some of his personal friends, particularly when he proposed the organization of a military force among the colonists. In the military organization of Virginia he was appointed to the command of a regiment. In September, 1775, he first took his seat in the general Congress, to which he was reappointed the following year. In the summer of 1777, ill health compelled him to resign his seat and return to Virginia. The State was at that time threatened with invasion, and Mr. Nelson was appointed brigadier-general and commander-in-chief of all its military forces. His popularity was unbounded, and his appointment gave universal satisfaction. About this time a motion was made to sequester the debts due in this State to English merchants. His inflexible and zealous opposition to the proposition in the legislature redounded to his honour, and evinced the lofty integrity of his character. At this period the American cause was threatened with annihilation, and Congress made an appeal to the patriotism of the young men of property and standing. When the appeal was published, General Nelson embarked in the cause with his characteristic ardour. He published an animating address, and succeeded in enlisting about seventy young Virginians in a volunteer corps, and furnished a number of them with the means of defraying their expenses, from his own purse. At the head of this Spartan band he marched to the North; but a change of circumstances occurring, their services were not required. In this enterprise General Nelson expended large sums of money, which were never repaid.

Early in 1779, he was again a short time in Congress, but ill health again compelled him to return to Virginia. In 1780, when the State undertook to borrow two millions of dollars for the aid of Congress, General Nelson opened a subscription. Calling on several friends, they declared that they would not lend him a shilling on the security of the commonwealth, but they would lend *him* all they could possibly raise; upon which he added his own personal security to that of the State, and succeeded in raising a large proportion of the sum required. By this and similar patriotic exertions, he suffered severe pecuniary losses, but never relaxed his exertions. He had at the beginning anticipated sufferings and sacrifices in effecting the independence of his country, and prepared his mind to meet and sustain them. In 1781, when the storm of war burst upon Virginia,

General Nelson was actively employed in effecting plans to oppose the enemy; and, succeeding Mr. Jefferson as governor, he was compelled to unite in himself the two offices of governor and commander of the military forces. By great exertions Governor Nelson kept his forces together until the capture of Cornwallis. To do this, he exerted his personal influence, his official authority, and his private fortune, to the utmost extent. After the surrender, Washington, in his account of it, made a very honourable acknowledgment of the valuable services of Governor Nelson, and the militia under his command, during the siege, in securing its important issue.

In a month after, ill health compelled Governor Nelson to retire again to private life, where malice and envy preferred base accusations against him for mal-administration of his office. But he was most honourably exculpated by the legislature. He never again entered public life. His time was passed in retirement at his plantation in Hanover, and at York. His health gradually declining, he died in Hanover, January 4th, 1789, aged fifty years.

Firmness and energy were the conspicuous traits of Governor Nelson. His abilities were moderate, but they were entirely devoted to noble purposes.

FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE.

This signer of the Declaration was one of the least prominent members of the great Continental Congress, and no one has thought proper to preserve the leading events of his life from oblivion. He was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, in October 14, 1734. His education was directed by a private tutor, and he inherited a large estate. In 1765, he was chosen a member of the house of burgesses, and he continued in that body until 1775, when his reputation for earnest patriotism procured him an election to the Continental Congress. He remained in that body until 1779, having the glorious opportunity of affixing his name to the Declaration of Independence, of which he was a firm supporter, and serving faithfully upon a number of important committees. In 1779 he was elected to the legislature of Virginia. He died in Richmond, in 1797, generally lamented as a true gentleman and a warm patriot.

CARTER BRAXTON.

Carter Braxton was born at Newington, King and Queen county, Virginia, September 10, 1736. His father was a wealthy planter, and his mother a daughter of Robert Carter, at one time president of the council of the colony. Mr. Braxton, having graduated at William and Mary at the age of nineteen, married Miss Judith Robinson, an accomplished lady, and daughter of a wealthy planter of Middlesex. His style of living was according to the general mode of Southern hospitality of that day, and subjected him to great expense.

As early as 1765, he was a member of the house of burgesses when Patrick Henry's celebrated resolutions were passed. In 1769, when Governor Botetourt, in consequence of the bold and spirited measures introduced, suddenly dissolved the Assembly, Mr. Braxton was one of the members who retired to a private room and signed a written non-importation agreement. In the next house, he was on three of the standing committees. He was elected a member from King William to the first Virginia convention, in 1774. At the period of the disturbance caused by the removal of the gunpowder from the magazine at Williamsburg by Lord Dunmore, Mr. Braxton was essentially instrumental in effecting a settlement on the part of his lordship which pacified the excited populace. He was a very active and useful member of the last house of burgesses ever convened in Virginia by royal authority, and was employed upon the committees of the House to whom were referred the subjects of dispute between his lordship and the legislature. Mr. Braxton was a member of the convention chosen by the people which met in Richmond in July, 1775, and was placed upon the committee of public safety. In December of the same year, he was appointed the successor of Peyton Randolph in Congress, that gentleman having died a short time previous. He was omitted in the election of members to Congress subsequent upon the Declaration of Independence. But on a meeting of the General Assembly, the first under the new constitution, of which he was a member, he, with Mr. Jefferson, received a vote of thanks from the Assembly, "for the eloquence, ability, and integrity with which they executed the important trust reposed in them, as two of the delegates of the county of King William in the general Congress." He was a member of Congress from 1777 to 1783, and in 1785. From 1786 to 1791 he was a member of the

council of the State, and from 1794 until the day of his death, October 6, 1697. Mr. Braxton's services, it will be seen, were highly important. The confidence and attachment of his constituents were unequivocally manifested in every vicissitude of circumstance, some of which were of the most afflictive kind, even to the close of his life.

WILLIAM HOOPER

Was born in Boston, June 17, 1742, and was the son of a clergyman who had emigrated to that city from Scotland. After graduating, in 1760, at Harvard College, he commenced the study of the law in the office of James Otis, and, on being admitted to the bar, removed to North Carolina, where he soon acquired an extensive practice. In 1773, he was chosen a representative in the provincial legislature, from the town of Wilmington, in which he had fixed his residence, and signalized himself by his opposition to an arbitrary measure of the government. He also wrote several essays, under the signature of *Hampden*, against the same measure.

In 1774, Mr. Hooper was named a delegate to the general Congress about to meet at Philadelphia. In that body he fully maintained his previous reputation. He was the chairman of the committee appointed to report an address to the inhabitants of Jamaica, the draught of which was his work. Shortly after signing the Declaration of Independence, Mr. Hooper was obliged to resign his seat, in consequence of the embarrassed state into which his private affairs had fallen while he was occupied with his public duties.

He was permitted to live to see the triumph of the cause of independence, and the organization of the federal government, but was called away from earth in the height of his fame, and the perfection of his powers. He died in October, 1790, aged forty-eight years. Mr. Hooper was a fervent orator, a learned lawyer, and a forcible writer.

JOSEPH HEWES.

Joseph Hewes was born at Kingston, New Jersey, in 1730. His parents were in good circumstances, and they gave him a thorough education. After graduating at Princeton College, however, he pre-

pared for a mercantile life. Having capital and enterprise, Mr. Hewes was successful in the pursuits of trade. At the age of thirty he removed to Wilmington, North Carolina, where he soon accumulated a fortune, and acquired popularity. He was elected a member of the colonial Assembly for several years, was an active and influential legislator, and a decided supporter of the rights of the colonists.

Mr. Hewes was elected a member of the first Continental Congress, which met in 1774, and he continued in that body until 1779, his repeated re-election proving that his services were considered faithful and meritorious. In 1779 sickness compelled him to retire from his seat in Congress, and on the 10th of November, of that year, he died, in the fiftieth year of his age. Mr. Hewes was not a conspicuous member of Congress. His mind was of a practical mould, and better fitted for attention to the details of business, than for brilliant action in a legislative body. But he was a firm patriot, and a man of strong, cool judgment.

JOHN PENN.

John Penn was another of the signers having the merit of being a self-made man. He was born in Carolina county, Virginia, on the 17th of May, 1741. He enjoyed no advantages of early education. But a strong, inquisitive mind, combined with a persevering will, overcame all obstacles. Having contrived to obtain an extensive knowledge of books, he began the study of the law, under the direction of the celebrated Edmund Pendleton, one of the ablest lawyers and orators of his day. Mr. Penn was admitted to the bar, and commenced the practice of his profession in 1762. His ability and learning soon raised him to a high position. In 1774, Mr. Penn removed to North Carolina. He had already avowed himself a decided Whig, and such was the general confidence in his patriotism and talents, that he was elected, in 1775, to a seat in the Continental Congress. In that body, he was an active member, giving the most untiring energy to the working committees, and advocating with zeal and eloquence decisive measures. He continued in Congress until 1779, when he returned to North Carolina. But he did not retire altogether from public life until the close of the war.

This able and energetic patriot was not destined to survive the

maturity of his powers. He died in September, 1788, at the age of forty-six years, leaving behind him the reputation of a great lawyer, an accomplished statesman, and an inflexible patriot.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE.

The brothers John and Edward Rutledge were the leading statesmen and orators of South Carolina, during the war of independence. John Rutledge, president of the State, was a bold, decisive, commanding patriot, with an eloquence as vehement and irresistible as a hurricane—a man of the same class as Henry Otis and John Adams. His brother, Edward Rutledge, was a different character, but equally eminent of his kind.

Edward Rutledge was born in the city of Charleston, South Carolina, in the month of November, 1749. He received a classical education, and at an early period commenced the study of the law with his elder brother. In 1769 he was sent to England to complete his legal education, and was entered as a student at the Temple. In 1773, he returned home, and commenced the practice of law in his native State. He rose rapidly to professional eminence; and as an exalted proof of the general esteem in which he was held, he was elected a delegate to Congress, which met at Philadelphia, in 1774. On his return home, he received the thanks of the Provincial Congress, and was again appointed a member of the next Congress. Owing to the secrecy which was observed by this august body, it is impossible to say what part he acted, but it is well known that he was an active and efficient member.

In the Congress of 1776, he took an active part in the discussions which preceded the declaration of independence. He is said to have proposed some alterations to the original report of this celebrated declaration, to which he afterward affixed his name. He was again chosen to Congress in 1779, but sickness prevented his attending its sessions.

At the close of the war he returned to the practice of his profession, but he devoted the greater part of seventeen years in the service of his country, and in the state legislature.

In 1798, Mr. Rutledge retired from the profession of the law, and was elected governor of the State; but he lived to complete only half the term for which he had been appointed. He bore his last illness with great fortitude, and expired January 23, 1800.

Mr. Rutledge possessed eminent virtues both as a public and private character. His manners were the most affable, his temper amiable, and his disposition benevolent. His person was above the middle size; his complexion was florid and fair, and with an unusual animation of countenance. As an orator he was not so impetuous and commanding as his brother John Rutledge, but possessed more of the Ciceronian style. There was a suavity in his manner, and conciliating attraction in his arguments, that had frequently the effect of subduing the prejudices of the unfriendly, and which never failed to increase the ardour and inflexibility of steady friends. The eloquence of John Rutledge was as a rapid torrent; that of Edward as a gentle and smoothly gliding stream; the first hurried you forward to the point it aimed at, with powerful impetuosity; the last conducted to it, with fascinations that made every progressive step appear enchanting.

THOMAS HEYWARD, Jun.

Thomas Heyward, Jr., was one of the signers of the "Declaration" who supported the cause of his country in the field as well as in council. He was born in South Carolina, in 1746. His father, who was a wealthy planter, gave him a classical education. He then commenced the study of the law with Mr. Parsons, a celebrated lawyer, and after the usual term of study, was sent to England, as was the custom, to complete his legal education. After completing his studies in the Middle Temple, Mr. Heyward spent several years in travel, on the continent of Europe. On his return home, in 1773, he soon became a favourite with the people. He was elected a member of the Assembly, and shortly afterward a member of the Council of Safety, an office bestowed only on the fearless and prudent. His fidelity and patriotism in these trusts recommended him to higher honours, and in 1775 he was elected to Congress, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of John Rutledge.

Mr. Heyward arrived in Philadelphia in time to attend upon the discussion of the Declaration of Independence; and found himself in that assembly of sages whose sagacity and intrepidity had reminded a Chatham of the fathers of ancient Rome. In 1778, Mr. Heyward was elected a judge of the civil and criminal courts of his State.

On the invasion of the Southern States, Mr. Heyward bore arms in defence of his country, and distinguished himself by daring and fortitude in action. At the siege of Charleston, he commanded a battalion of troops. When General Lincoln was compelled to surrender, Mr. Heyward fell into the hands of the British; and as he was particularly obnoxious on account of his zeal and activity as a patriot, he was sent, with a number of other distinguished patriots, to St. Augustine, where the prisoners were inhumanly treated.

Mr. Heyward was not released until the cessation of hostilities, when he went to Philadelphia. On his return to South Carolina, he resumed the labours of the judicial bench, and served in that position until 1788. In 1790 he was appointed a member of the convention for framing a State constitution, but continued care and anxiety had brought on bodily infirmities, and in 1791, Judge Heyward retired to private life. He survived, however, until March, 1809, and, before yielding his spirit to the God who gave it, had the satisfaction of beholding his country happy and prosperous.

Mr. Heyward was honest, energetic, and intelligent in the discharge of his public duties. He was a conscientious and indomitable supporter of the cause of independence, and to procure his country's triumph was willing to sacrifice estate, reputation, or his very life.

THOMAS LYNCH, Jun.

Thomas Lynch was the son of one of the wealthiest planters of South Carolina. He was born in that State, August 5th, 1749. The father superintended the early education of the son, and, in his thirteenth year sent him to England to continue his scholastic studies. On the arrival of young Lynch in that country, he was placed at Eton school, preparatory to entering Cambridge University as a gentleman commoner. At the latter institution he took his degrees; and, in 1772, after an absence of eight or nine years, he returned to his native State.

Few men had ever returned to America more accomplished in the most valuable sense of the term. With ample stores of knowledge, won from the solid parts of human learning, embellished by the graces of polite literature, possessing easy and insinuating manners, combined with a powerful and fascinating elocution, he was enabled at once to impress that community, in which he was destined to spend

his short life, with a decided conviction of his great fitness for public confidence and distinction.

Shortly after his arrival, Mr. Lynch made his *debut* as a public speaker at one of the town meetings at Charleston, for the purpose of taking into consideration some of the accumulated injuries inflicted by the mother country upon the colonies; and in 1775 was elected to represent his State in Congress, in the place of his father, who was obliged to resign on account of his extreme ill health.

On his arrival at Philadelphia, he took his seat in the Congress of 1776. Here he succeeded in fixing a just impression of his exalted character, superior intellect, and persuasive eloquence. He had not been, however, long in Congress before his health began to decline with the most alarming rapidity. He was, however, enabled to give his full sanction to those measures which were tending, with irresistible efficacy, to the Declaration of Independence. One of the last acts of his political life was to affix his signature to that important instrument.

During the early part of the services of Mr. Lynch in Congress, his father remained in Philadelphia. He had experienced a temporary alleviation from his bodily sufferings; and his physicians advised him to travel. He lived only to reach Annapolis, where he expired in the arms of his son, in the autumn of 1766.

The afflicted survivor, after this distressing event, at the request of his physician, prepared to take a voyage to the South of France. He accordingly, in the year 1779, sailed in a ship commanded by Captain Morgan, accompanied by his amiable lady, whose conjugal devotion increased with the declining health of her husband. In this voyage, they terminated their mortal career. The circumstances of their fate are vailed in impenetrable obscurity. But it is supposed that the ship foundered at sea.

By the untimely death of Mr. Lynch, the young republic lost a statesman and orator of the highest promise, and South Carolina, one of the noblest of her representatives.

ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

The ancestors of Arthur Middleton were of the highest respectability. His grandfather was a man of great influence in the colony of South Carolina, and his father, Henry Middleton, was one of the

presidents of the first Continental Congress. The subject of this memoir was born in 1743, on the banks of the Ashly river, South Carolina. At an early age he was sent to England to obtain a thorough education. He was first placed at the well-known school of Harrow-on-the-Hill, whence, at the age of fourteen, he was transferred to that of Westminster. In both he made great proficiency in the Greek and Latin classics. Having passed regularly through Westminster school, he was entered, between the age of eighteen and nineteen, in Trinity College, Cambridge. He left this institution in his twenty-second year, with the reputation of a sound scholar and moral man. After visiting many parts of England, he passed two years in making the tour of Europe. In 1773, he fixed his residence at his birthplace. In the following year he engaged warmly on the side of the colonies, in the disputes between them and the mother country.

As a member of the first council of safety chosen by the Provincial Congress of South Carolina, Mr. Middleton advocated and suggested the most vigorous and decisive measures. After serving on the committee to prepare and report a constitution for South Carolina, he was elected by the Assembly one of the representatives of the State in the Congress of the United States, then convened at Philadelphia. In this capacity he signed the Declaration of Independence. He and Hancock formed a joint domestic establishment, and exercised a munificent hospitality, which was deemed salutary in uniting socially the members from the two extremities of the Union. Mr. Middleton held his seat until 1777, always strenuous in the cause of independence. The post of Governor of South Carolina was offered to him in 1778, but he declined it because he could not approve the new constitution which was that year framed for the State.

In 1779, Mr. Middleton distinguished himself in the defence of Charleston against the British, who afterward ravaged his plantation and rifled his mansion. In the following year he became their prisoner, (in November, 1780,) was sent to St. Augustine, and, in 1781, was included in a general exchange of prisoners, and sailed for Philadelphia. Soon after his arrival in that city, he was appointed by the Governor of South Carolina a representative in Congress. In 1782, the General Assembly of the State elected him to the same station. When the revolutionary contest terminated, Mr. Middleton returned to his native State. He afterward served in the legislature of South Carolina, for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation of parties. The remainder of his life was spent in elegant and philosophical ease. Mr. Middleton incurred an immense loss of property by his course

during the Revolution. In November, 1786, he was seized with an intermittent fever, which caused his death January 1, 1787.

Without possessing the highest order of talent, Mr. Middleton was an able and accomplished statesman, a firm and decisive patriot, and an enlightened philanthropist. In all the public offices with which he was honoured, he was a faithful servant. In private life, he was the personification of social virtue.

BUTTON GWINNETT.

Button Gwinnett perilled all he possessed for an adopted country. He was born in England in 1732, and did not emigrate to America until 1770, when the troubles between the colonies and the mother country were rapidly approaching a rupture. On his arrival in the new world, Mr. Gwinnett settled in Charleston, South Carolina, where he continued the business of a merchant, in which he had been previously engaged. At the end of two years, he abandoned commerce, and, purchasing a plantation on St. Catharine's Island, in Georgia, devoted his attention to agriculture.

At the commencement of the Revolution, Mr. Gwinnett boldly advocated the cause of his adopted country. His zeal and ability soon rendered him conspicuous, and on the 2d of February, 1776, the General Assembly of Georgia elected him a delegate to the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, where he took his seat on the 20th of May. Soon afterward, the debate upon the Declaration of Independence commenced. When the question was decided, Mr. Gwinnett signed his name among those of the other patriots, and so embarked his life and fortune in an apparently desperate cause. He was re-elected to a seat in Congress on the 9th of October in the same year.

In February, 1777, Mr. Gwinnett was appointed a member of the convention for the purpose of framing a constitution for Georgia; and the foundation of that afterward adopted is said to have been furnished by him. He was then chosen president of the council. But it is said that while he held this position, he allowed personal enmity to get the better of patriotic principle, and employed his powers to thwart the operations of General McIntosh, for whom he cherished an inexorable hatred. In May, 1777, Gwinnett was a candidate for the gubernatorial chair of the State, but failed, as his

conduct toward McIntosh had rendered him unpopular. On the 27th of the same month a duel occurred between him and McIntosh. Both parties were wounded, but the injuries received by Gwinnett terminated his life in the forty-fifth year of his age.

Mr. Gwinnett's political career was short, and its termination lamentable. But he stamped his character in the history of Georgia as a man of great energy and intelligence. His passions were powerful; and as he had not learned the prime art of self-control, he permitted them to lead him from the path of prudence. It is but justice to his memory to say, however, that he was an honest man, and the services which he rendered the country of his adoption were solid and permanent in their effects.

LYMAN HALL.

Lyman Hall, whose name stands second among those of the Georgia delegates whose signatures are immortalized by the Declaration to which they are appended, was born in Connecticut, about the year 1731, and, after receiving a classical education, commenced the study of medicine. In 1752 he removed to South Carolina, and, in the same year, to Sudbury, in the district of Medway, in Georgia, where he practised his profession until the commencement of the Revolutionary troubles. In July, 1774, he was sent, as representative of the parish of St. John, to a general meeting of the republican party in Georgia, which was held at Savannah. The proceedings of the meeting were of too temporizing a nature to please the ardour of the inhabitants of that parish, and they, in consequence, separated themselves from the other parishes of the colony, and, March 21, 1775, elected Dr. Hall their delegate to the general Congress, assembled at Philadelphia. May 13, he was admitted to a seat in the house, though he was not allowed to vote when the sentiments of the body were taken by colonies, as he could only be considered the representative of a small portion of a province. But in June of the same year, the convention of Georgia having, at length, acceded to the general confederacy, its representation was rendered complete by the election of four other delegates. The names of but two of his colleagues, however, appear in conjunction with Dr. Hall's on the Declaration, the remaining two being absent. The last time Dr. Hall appeared in Congress was in 1780. In 1782 he was chosen Governor of the State of Georgia, and, after his retirement

from public life, settled in Burke's county, where he died in the sixtieth year of his age. He possessed a strong mind and a placid disposition. He made great sacrifices, both of comfort and property, in his country's service. When the British took possession of Georgia, his estate was confiscated. He was not calculated to become a conspicuous figure among the colossal men of the Revolution, but a practical cast of mind enabled him to render efficient service in the business of Congress and in the councils of Georgia.

GEORGE WALTON.

The last name affixed to the great charter of independence is that of George Walton, whose long and honourable public career is worthy of the study of young Americans. Mr. Walton was born in Frederic county, Virginia, about the year 1740. He enjoyed but meagre opportunities of education. His early occupation was that of an apprentice to a carpenter. Like Sherman and Whipple, however, he possessed that eager thirst for knowledge which no outward circumstances could quench; and he employed all his leisure moments in reading and study. At the expiration of his term of apprenticeship, Mr. Walton removed to Georgia, where he gained an opportunity of studying law under the superintendence of H. Young, Esq. In 1774, the quondam carpenter's apprentice was admitted to the bar.

Mr. Walton was an active and zealous patriot. He was one of the most prominent among that daring council which assembled at the "Liberty Pole," at Tondee's Tavern, Savannah, to devise measures of resistance to the encroachments of England.

In January, 1775, he was chosen a member of a committee appointed to prepare a petition to the king; and, in February, 1776, he was elected one of the Georgia delegation to the national Congress, and continued a member of that body, with little intermission, until 1781. In December, 1778, he was appointed colonel in the militia, and received a wound in the thigh during the defence of Savannah. He was made prisoner, but exchanged in September, 1779. He was twice chosen governor of the State, once a senator of the United States, and, at four different periods, a judge of the superior courts, which last office he held fifteen years, until his death, Feb. 2, 1804.

In all the public positions to which he was called, Mr. Walton displayed energy, decision, and great natural capacity. As a judge he had no superior in Georgia.

Articles of Confederation.

To all to whom these presents shall come, we, the undersigned Delegates of the States affixed to our names, send greeting.

Whereas, the delegates of the United States of America in Congress assembled did, on the fifteenth day of November, on the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven, and in the second year of the independence of America, agree to certain articles of confederation and perpetual Union between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, in the words following, viz:—

Articles of Confederation and perpetual Union between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Article 1. The style of this confederacy shall be, "The United States of America."

Article 2. Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled.

Article 3. The said States hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare; binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

Article 4. The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different States in this Union, the free inhabitants of each of these States, paupers, vagabonds, and fugitives from justice excepted, shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several States; and the people of each State shall have free ingress and egress to and from any other State, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce subject to the same duties, impositions, and restrictions, as

the inhabitants thereof respectively, provided that such restrictions shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any State to any other State, of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided also, that no imposition, duties, or restriction, shall be laid by any State on the property of the United States or either of them.

If any person guilty of or charged with treason, felony, or other high misdemeanour, in any State, shall flee from justice, and be found in any of the United States, he shall, upon demand of the governor or executive power of the State from which he fled, be delivered up and removed to the State having jurisdiction of his offence.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each of these States to the records, acts, and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other State.

Article 5. For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed in such manner as the legislature of each State shall direct to meet in Congress on the first Monday in November, in every year, with a power reserved to each State to recall its delegates or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year.

No State shall be represented in Congress by less than two, nor by more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or another for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emoluments of any kind.

Each State shall maintain its own delegates in a meeting of the States, and while they act as members of the committee of the States.

In determining questions in the United States in Congress assembled, each State shall have one vote.

Freedom of speech and debate in Congress shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Congress; and the members of Congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments, during the time of their going to and from and attendance on Congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Article 6. No State without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from, or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance, or treaty, with any king, prince, or state; nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office or title of any kind whatever,

from any king, prince, or foreign state; nor shall the United States in Congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

No two or more States shall enter into any treaty, confederation, or alliance whatever, between them, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, specifying accurately the purpose for which the same is to be entered into and how long it shall continue.

No State shall lay any imposts or duties, which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties entered into by the United States in Congress assembled, with any king, prince, or state, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by Congress to the courts of France and Spain.

No vessel of war shall be kept up in time of peace by any State, except such number only as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in Congress assembled for the defence of such State or its trade; nor shall any body of forces be kept up by any State in time of peace, except such number only as in the judgment of the United States in Congress assembled, shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such State; but every State shall always keep up a well-regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred, and shall provide and have constantly ready for use, in public stores, a due number of field-pieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition, and camp equipage.

No State shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be actually invaded by enemies or shall have received certain advice of a resolution being formed by some nation of Indians to invade such State, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of a delay till the United States in Congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any State grant commissions to any ships or vessels of war, nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in Congress assembled, and then only against the kingdom or state, and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be infested by pirates, in which case vessels of war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in Congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

ARTICLE 7. When land forces are raised by any State for the common defence, all officers of or under the rank of colonel, shall be appointed by the legislature of each State respectively, by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such State shall direct,

and all vacancies shall be filled up by the State which first made the appointment.

ARTICLE 8. All charges of war, and all other expenses that shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in Congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several States in proportion to the value of all land within each State granted to or surveyed for any person, and such land and the buildings and improvements thereon shall be estimated according to such mode as the United States in Congress assembled shall from time to time direct and appoint.

The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the several States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled.

ARTICLE 9. The United States in Congress assembled shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth article—of sending and receiving ambassadors—entering into treaties and alliances; provided, that no treaty of commerce shall be made whereby the legislative power of the respective States shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatsoever—of establishing rules for deciding, in all cases, what captures on land or water shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated—of granting letters of marque and reprisal in times of peace—appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of captures: provided, that no member of Congress shall be appointed a judge of any of the said courts.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also be the last resort on appeal in all disputes and differences now subsisting or that hereafter may arise between two or more States concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following: whenever the legislative or executive authority or lawful agent of any State in controversy with another shall present a petition to Congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given by order of Congress to the legislative or executive authority of the other State in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance

of the parties, by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint by joint consent commissioners or judges to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question; but if they cannot agree, Congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen; and from that number not less than seven nor more than nine names, as Congress shall direct, shall, in the presence of Congress, be drawn out by lot; and the persons whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners or judges, to hear and finally determine the controversy, so always as a major part of the judges, who shall hear the cause, shall agree in the determination: and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons which Congress shall judge sufficient, or being present shall refuse to strike, the Congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each State, and the secretary of Congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing; and the judgment and sentence of the court to be appointed in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear, or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence or judgment, which shall in like manner be final and decisive, the judgment or sentence and other proceedings being in either case transmitted to Congress, and lodged among the acts of Congress for the security of the parties concerned: provided, that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath, to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the State, where the cause shall be tried, "well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favour, affection, or hope of reward:" provided also, that no State shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

All controversies concerning the private right of soil, claimed under different grants of two or more States, whose jurisdiction as they may respect such lands and the States which passed such grants are adjusted, the said grants or either of them being at the same time claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement or jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the Congress of the United States, be finally determined, as near as may be, in the same manner as is before prescribed for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different States.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also have the sole

and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective States —fixing the standard of weights and measures throughout the United States—regulating the trade and managing all affairs with the Indians not members of any of the States; provided that the legislative right of any State within its own limits be not infringed or violated—establishing and regulating post-offices from one State to another throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same, as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office—appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States excepting regimental officers—appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever in the service of the United States—making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

The United States in Congress assembled shall have authority to appoint a committee to sit in the recess of Congress, to be denominated "A Committee of the States," and to consist of one delegate from each State; and to appoint such other committees and civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States, under their direction—to appoint one of their number to preside, provided that no person be allowed to serve in the office of president more than one year in any term of three years—to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses—to borrow money or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half year to the respective States an account of the sums of money so borrowed or emitted—to build and equip a navy—to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each State for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in such State; which requisition shall be binding, and thereupon the legislature of each State shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, and clothe, arm, and equip them, in a soldierlike manner, at the expense of the United States; and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled: but if the United States in Congress assembled, shall, on consideration of circumstances, judge proper that any State should not raise men or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other State should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed, and

equipped, in the same manner as the quota of such State, unless the legislature of such State shall judge that such extra number cannot safely be spared out of the same; in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm, and equip as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared. And the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled.

The United States in Congress assembled shall never engage in a war, nor grant letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into any treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States or any of them, nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels of war to be built or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be raised, nor appoint a commander-in-chief of the army or navy, unless nine States assent to the same; nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States in Congress assembled.

The Congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months; and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations, as in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each State on any question shall be entered on the journal, when it is desired by any delegate; and the delegates of a State, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal, except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the legislatures of the several States.

ARTICLE 10. The committee of the States, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of Congress, such of the powers of Congress as the United States in Congress assembled, by the consent of nine States, shall from time to time, think expedient to vest them with; provided that no power be delegated to the said committee, for the exercise of which, by the articles of confederation, the voice of nine States in the Congress of the United States assembled is requisite.

ARTICLE 11. Canada, acceding to this confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into, and

entitled to all the advantages of this Union; but no other colony shall be admitted into the same unless such admission be agreed to by nine States.

ARTICLE 12. All bills of credit emitted, moneys borrowed, and debts contracted, by or under the authority of Congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for payment and satisfaction whereof the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

ARTICLE 13. Every State shall abide by the decision of the United States in Congress assembled, on all questions which, by this confederation, are submitted to them. And the articles of this confederation shall be inviolably observed by every State, and the Union shall be perpetual; nor shall any alteration at any time hereafter be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a Congress of the United States, and be afterward confirmed by the legislature of every State.

And whereas it has pleased the great Governor of the world to incline the hearts of the legislatures we respectively represent in Congress, to approve of and to authorize us to ratify the said articles of confederation and perpetual Union: *know ye*, that we, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do, by these presents, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify and confirm each and every of the said articles of confederation and perpetual Union, and all and singular the matters and things therein contained; and we do further solemnly plight and engage the faith of our respective constituents, that they shall abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled, on all questions which, by the said confederation, are submitted to them; and that the articles thereof shall be inviolably observed by the States we respectively represent; and that the Union be perpetual.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands, in Congress. Done at Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, the ninth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and in the third year of the independence of America.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
JOSIAH BARTLETT,
JOHN WENTWORTH, JUN.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
JOHN HANCOCK,
SAMUEL ADAMS,
ELBRIDGE GERRY,
FRANCIS DANA,
JAMES LOVELL,
SAMUEL HOLTON.

RHODE ISLAND.
WILLIAM ELLERY,
HENRY MARCHANT,
JOHN COLLINS.

CONNECTICUT.
ROGER SHERMAN,
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,
OLIVER WOLCOTT,

Titus Hosmer,
Andrew Adams.

NEW YORK.

James Duane,
Francis Lewis,
William Duer,
Gouverneur Morris.

NEW JERSEY.

John Witherspoon,
Nath. Scudder.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Robert Morris,
Daniel Roberdeau,
Jonathan Bayard Smith,
William Clingan,
Joseph Reed.

DELAWARE.

Thomas McKean,
John Dickinson,
Nicholas Van Dyke.

MARYLAND.

John Hanson,
Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.

Richard Henry Lee,
John Banister,
Thomas Adams,
John Harvie,
Francis Lightfoot Lee.

NORTH CAROLINA.

John Penn,
Constable Harnett,
John Williams.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Henry Laurens,
William Henry Drayton,
John Matthews,
Richard Hutson,
Thomas Heyward, Jun.

GEORGIA.

John Walton,
Edward Telfair,
Edward Langworthy.

Biographies of the Signers of the Articles of Confederation.

JOHN WENTWORTH, JUN.*

THE delegates from New Hampshire in the Congress which adopted the Articles of Confederation were Josiah Bartlett and JOHN WENTWORTH, JUN. We have already given a biography of the first-named statesman. John Wentworth was the descendant and relative of the Wentworths who so long held the highest offices in New Hampshire. His uncle was Benning Wentworth, who held the gubernatorial office twenty-five years, and who himself was the son of a lieutenant-governor. The subject of this memoir was the son of Mark Hunting Wentworth. Having received an excellent education, he applied himself to the study of the law, and at the commencement of the difficulties between the colonies and the mother country, he espoused the patriot side in opposition to his cousin, Governor Wentworth, who had done all in his power to restrain the rising spirit of the colonists, and who, finding the effort vain, had fled to England. Young Wentworth was an active member of the Congress which framed the Articles of Confederation, and a worthy colleague of Josiah Bartlett.

He remained faithful to the patriot cause throughout the Revolution, and was, till his death, a distinguished citizen of New Hampshire.

FRANCIS DANA.

AMONG the framers of the Articles of Confederation, the following delegates represented Massachusetts:—John Hancock, Samuel Adams, Elbridge Gerry, James Lovell, and Samuel Holten. We have already given biographies of Hancock, Adams, and Gerry, among

* The biographies of those of the signers of the Articles of Confederation who were also signers of the Declaration of Independence are, of course, omitted under this head.

those of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Francis Dana was born in Massachusetts in 1743. His parents were wealthy and respectable, and gave him the benefit of an excellent education. Young Dana graduated at Harvard College in 1762, and then turned his attention to the study of the law. On being admitted to the bar, Mr. Dana went to England, where he remained one year, and then returned and began the practice of his profession. His learning and ability secured him speedy success.

At the commencement of the troubles occasioned by the arbitrary and oppressive measures of the British Parliament, Mr. Dana manifested a decided partiality for the cause of the colonists, and was a valuable acquisition to the ranks of the patriots. In 1776, he was elected to a seat in the Continental Congress, and he continued to be an active member of that body until 1779. He was one of the committee appointed by Congress to consider the conciliatory propositions of the British commissioners, Messrs. Johnson and Eden; but nothing was effected by the negotiation.

In 1779, Mr. Dana accompanied John Adams to France as secretary of legation. In 1780, he was appointed minister to Prussia, and although not publicly received as such, he remained there until the close of the war. He then returned to America, and in 1784 was elected to a seat in Congress. In 1792, Mr. Dana was appointed chief-justice of Massachusetts, and he continued to discharge the grave duties of that office until 1806, when he resigned. This eminent servant of the public died in 1811, at the age of sixty-eight years. His character was estimable in every respect;—it was that of a firm patriot, an upright judge, and a cheerful domestic companion.

JAMES LOVELL.

James Lovell was an instance of a patriotic son in conflict with a Tory refugee father. John Lovell, his father, was a schoolmaster in Boston, Massachusetts. He was a good scholar, and a man of considerable force of character. Many of the principal men of the Revolution had been under his tuition. He was a decided loyalist, and in 1777 he accompanied the British troops to Halifax, where he died in 1778, at the age of seventy years. His son, James Lovell, was born in 1738, and graduated at Harvard College in 1756. For many years afterward he was a distinguished teacher of the

Latin school, being associated with his father. From the commencement of the colonial troubles, James Lovell was a firm Whig. In consequence of his patriotic zeal, General Gage put him in prison, and he was carried by the British troops to Halifax, where he was for a long time kept in close confinement. The father was there a Tory refugee; the son a prisoner, suffering for his devotion to his country's cause.

At length, Mr. Lovell was exchanged, and he returned to Boston to receive the congratulations of his fellow-citizens on his fidelity. He was immediately elected to a seat in the Continental Congress, in which station his services were manifold and exceedingly valuable. He was a member of the committee of foreign correspondence, and unwearying in attention to his duties. Before the establishment of the constitution of Massachusetts, in 1786, Mr. Lovell was collector of customs for the port of Boston, and afterward was naval officer for Boston and Charleston until his death, in 1814, at the age of seventy-six years. Mr. Lovell was truly a devoted patriot, and an example of the sacrifice of domestic peace for the general good.

SAMUEL HOLTEN.

Samuel Holten, who had the honour of becoming one of the presidents of the Continental Congress, was born in Danvers, Massachusetts, June 9, 1738. Having received a good education, he studied medicine, and then commenced the practice of his profession in his native town. He was a zealous Whig, and gave all his energy and ability to the cause of his country at the commencement of the struggle against British oppression. In 1778, Mr. Holten was elected a member of Congress, and he continued an active member of that august body for five years, serving for a time as its presiding officer. He then retired from prominent public positions and enjoyed an interval of repose.

In 1793, Mr. Holten was again elected a representative in Congress. In 1796 he was appointed judge of probate for the county of Essex, which office he resigned in 1815, after having been in public stations forty-seven years, a long period of patriotic and honourable service. He died in 1816, aged seventy-seven years. Mr. Holten was a man of high character and dignified bearing; rigidly faithful in the performance of his duties, and exacting the same strictness in keeping engagements from others.

HENRY MARCHANT.

Of this signer of the Articles of Confederation we know no further than he was a patriotic and unflinching representative of Rhode Island in the Continental Congress; but although he was not a prominent man during those stormy times, he deserves remembrance from the firm position he occupied in that body.

JOHN COLLINS.

John Collins was an active patriot of Rhode Island during the Revolution. He was born in that State in 1717. After receiving a good education, he studied law, and became an advocate of considerable reputation. Being a zealous supporter of the rights of the colonists, he was elected a member of the Continental Congress, where his services were of a practical and efficient character. When the independence of his country was once declared, he lent all his energies to upholding the declaration, and was a chief advocate of the Articles of Confederation to which we find his signature affixed.

In 1786, Mr. Collins was elected governor of Rhode Island; and he held that office until 1789. He then retired from the theatre of public action, to enjoy the calm pleasures of private life. He died in 1795, at the age of seventy-eight years. He was an earnest and intelligent patriot.

TITUS HOSMER.

Titus Hosmer was one of the foremost scholars, lawyers, and statesmen of his day. He was born in West Hartford, Connecticut. Being educated to the law, he soon acquired distinction and influence. He was elected a member of the council of state and of the national Congress, and then appointed a judge of the maritime court of appeals for the United States. He was the patron of Joel Barlow, the poet, whom he encouraged to publish the "Vision of Columbus." Mr. Hosmer died in middle life, in the full maturity of his powers, shortly after he had seen the independence of his country established.

ANDREW ADAMS.

Andrew Adams was born at Stratford, Connecticut, in January, 1736. Being of a very respectable family, he was thoroughly educated, and he graduated at Yale College in 1760. In 1764, Mr. Adams entered upon the practice of the law at Litchfield, in his native State. His success was immediate, and eminently honourable. His fine abilities were then devoted to the service of his country in council; for, having become an ardent Whig, he was elected to Congress soon after the great Declaration of Independence was given to the world. He was an active and useful member of that body.

In 1789, Mr. Adams was appointed a judge of the supreme court of Massachusetts; and in this position his profound learning and vigorous mind were so fully displayed, that he was, in 1793, appointed chief-justice of the State of Connecticut. He died on the 26th of November, 1799, at the age of sixty-three years, leaving behind a high reputation as a lawyer, statesman, and patriot.

JAMES DUANE.

Judge Duane was a distinguished citizen of New York, when the colonial trials commenced. On account of his zeal and ability, he was elected a delegate to the first Congress, and he was an active patriot and statesman throughout the Revolution. In 1789 he was appointed judge of the district court of New York. He was the first mayor of the city of New York after its evacuation by the British forces. He died in 1797. Among his productions was a published law case, which displays his ability as a judge.

WILLIAM DUER.

William Duer was the patriotic progenitor of a family which has long been distinguished in New York city. Besides having been a member of that Congress which framed the Articles of Confederation, he took an active part in local resistance to the British authorities at New York, and held a number of important civil offices after the Revolution. Some of his descendants have risen to distinction in judicial and congressional life.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

THE ablest man among the New York delegates in the Continental Congress was Gouverneur Morris. He was born at Morrisania, near the city of New York, on the 31st of January, 1752. Being of a wealthy family, he enjoyed the advantages of a complete classical education. He graduated at King's College, in May, 1768. Immediately after he entered the office of William Smith (the historian of the colony) as a student of law. In 1771, he was licensed to practise law. His proficiency in all his studies was remarkable. He acquired early much reputation as a man of brilliant talents and various promise. His person, address, manners, elocution, were of a superior order. In May, 1775, Mr. Morris was chosen a delegate to the Provincial Congress of New York. In June of that year, he served on a committee with General Montgomery, to confer with General Washington respecting the manner of his introduction to the Congress. He entered with zeal and efficiency into all the questions and proceedings which referred to a vigorous resistance to the pretensions of the mother country.

In December, 1776, Mr. Morris acted as one of the committee for drafting a constitution for the State of New York, which was reported in March, and adopted in April, of that year, after repeated and very able debates, in which Jay, Morris, and Robert R. Livingston were the principal speakers. In July, 1777, he served as a member of a committee from the New York Congress, to repair to the headquarters of Schuyler's army, to inquire into the causes of the evacuation of Ticonderoga. In October of that year he joined the Continental Congress at York, Pennsylvania, and, in 1778, wrote the patriotic and successful pamphlet called Observations on the American Revolution, which he published at the beginning of 1779. We must refer to the journals of Congress for an account of his many and valuable services, rendered in that body to the Revolutionary cause. In July, 1781, he accepted the post of assistant superintendent of finance, as the colleague of Robert Morris. He filled every office to which he was called with characteristic zeal and ability.

After the war of the Revolution, this active man embarked with Robert Morris in mercantile enterprises. In 1785, he published an Address to the Assembly of Pennsylvania on the Abolition of the Bank of North America, in which he cogently argued against that project. In December, 1786, he purchased from his brother the fine

estate of Morrisania, and made it his dwelling-place. Here he devoted himself to liberal studies. In the following year, he served with distinction as a member of the convention for framing the constitution of the United States. December 15, 1788, he sailed for France, where he was occupied in selling lands and pursuing money speculations until March, 1790, when he proceeded to London as private agent of the American government with regard to the conditions of the old treaty, and the inclination of the British cabinet to form a commercial treaty. In November, 1790, he returned to Paris, having made a tour in Germany. In the interval between this period and the beginning of the year 1792, he passed several times on public business between the British and French capitals. February 6, 1792, he received his appointment as minister plenipotentiary to France, and was presented to the king, June 3d. He held this station with great *eclat* until October, 1794. He witnessed the most interesting scenes of the Revolution in the capital, and maintained personal intercourse with the conspicuous politicians of the several parties. The abundant memorials which he has left of his sojourn in France, and his travels on the European continent, possess the highest interest and much historical value. He made extensive journeys after he ceased to be minister plenipotentiary, of which he kept a a full diary.

In the autumn of 1798, Mr. Morris returned to the United States, to engage in politics, with enhanced celebrity and a large additional stock of political and literary knowledge. He was universally admitted to be one of the most accomplished and prominent gentlemen of his country. In 1800, he entered the Senate of the United States, where his eloquence and information made him conspicuous. The two eulogies which he pronounced—one on General Washington, and the other at the funeral of General Hamilton—are specimens of his rhetorical style. His delivery was excellent. Mr. Morris, at an early period, gave special and sagacious attention to the project of that grand canal by which the State of New York has been so much honoured and benefited. In the summer of 1810 he examined the canal route to Lake Erie. The share which he had in originating and promoting that noble work, is stated in the regular history which has been published of its conception and progress. In May, 1812, he pronounced a public and impressive eulogium on the venerable George Clinton; in the same year, an oration before the New York Historical Society; in 1814, another on the restoration of the Bourbons in France; in 1816, a discourse before the New York Historical Society. Mr. Morris died at Morrisania, November 5, 1816.

He passed the latter years of his life at Morrisania, exercising an elegant and munificent hospitality, reviewing the studies of his early days, and carrying on a very interesting commerce of letters with statesmen and literati in Europe and America. The activity of his mind, the richness of his fancy, and the copiousness of his eloquent conversation, were the admiration of all his acquaintance.

NATHANIEL SCUDDER.

Nathaniel Scudder was one of the most active patriots of New Jersey, during the Revolution. Having won the confidence of his fellow-citizens by his zeal and decision, he was, in 1777, elected to a seat in Congress. He continued a member of that body until November, 1779. He was a faithful servant of his country in the time of sorest need. After the great struggle had been brought to a successful termination, he took no part in public affairs.

DANIEL ROBERDEAU.

General Daniel Roberdeau was a distinguished statesman and soldier of the Revolution. He was born in the Isle of France in 1727. At an early age he distinguished himself as a zealous Huganot and friend of civil and religious liberty. Emigrating to America, he settled in the beautiful vale of Wyoming, where he built a fort for protection against the Indians, and devoted himself to the pursuits of hunting and agriculture. Having listened to the preaching of the Rev. George Whitefield, he became a follower of that eloquent minister of the gospel. But the deep religious feeling of Mr. Roberdeau did not prevent him joining the patriot forces at the commencement of the Revolution. His skill, courage, and self-reliance in all emergencies soon raised him to command, and he distinguished himself by gallantry in active service.

Previous to entering the army, however, General Roberdeau had been elected to Congress. He was not a conspicuous member of that august body, for the faculty of eloquence was denied him, and he could only show his patriotism by faithful practical service. At

the conclusion of the war, General Roberdeau removed to Virginia, and settled in Frederick county, where he died January 5, 1795, at the age of sixty-eight years. He was a man of great energy of character, having a religious tone of mind, and a grave and dignified bearing. His love of civil and religious freedom was remarkable throughout life in France and in America; and he devoted his whole soul to the cause he had at heart.

JONATHAN BAYARD SMITH.

Jonathan Bayard Smith was an active and influential patriot of Philadelphia throughout the Revolution. When the committee of observation and correspondence was formed in that city in June, 1776, Mr. Smith was elected vice-president, Thomas McKean being chosen president. This committee issued a solemn and temperate address to the people of Pennsylvania, prescribing the course of action to be pursued by the friends of liberty, and Mr. Smith was a colleague of Benjamin Rush and others in preparing this able paper. As a member of the Continental Congress, Mr. Smith was useful, inndustrious, and an advocate of the boldest and most decisive measures.

WILLIAM CLINGAN.

This signer of the Articles of Confederation was not a prominent member of the Continental Congress. We do not find his name in connection with any of the important movements of the period beyond the hall of Congress. But there is no member of that body who does not deserve to be remembered by his countrymen, as one who perilled all for his country, and blenched not when the storm was loudest and most terrible; and though Mr. Clingan may not have possessed the ability to perform great deeds for the cause of his heart, the intention alone elevates him to a niche of honour.

JOSEPH REED.

General Joseph Reed was one of the most prominent characters of the Revolution. He was born on the 27th of August, 1741, in New Jersey.

In 1757, at the age of sixteen, he graduated at Princeton College. After studying law in that place, he repaired to England, where he prosecuted his studies until the disturbances produced in the colonies by the stamp act. On his return, he commenced the practice of his profession in Philadelphia, and met with distinguished success. He embarked actively in the political struggle of the day, on the side of independence, and, in 1774, was appointed one of the committee of correspondence of Philadelphia. He was in the same year, also, president of the first provincial convention held in Pennsylvania, and a delegate to the Continental Congress. On the formation of the army, he resigned a lucrative practice, and, at the solicitation of General Washington, repaired to the camp at Cambridge, where he was appointed aid-de-camp and secretary to the commander-in-chief. Throughout this campaign, though acting merely as a volunteer, he displayed great courage and military ability.

In the beginning of 1776, Mr. Reed was made adjutant-general, and contributed materially, by his local knowledge, to the success of the affairs at Trenton and Princeton. During the week which elapsed between the two actions, he proposed to six Philadelphia gentlemen, members of the city troop, to accompany him on an excursion to obtain information. They advanced into the vicinity of Princeton, where the enemy was stationed, and surprised twelve British dragoons in a farm-house, who surrendered to this party of half their number, and were conducted by them to the American camp. At the end of the year, he resigned the office of adjutant-general. In 1777, within a period of less than two months, he was appointed chief-justice of Pennsylvania, and named by Congress a brigadier-general. He declined both offices, however, but continued to serve as a volunteer until the close of the campaign. He was present at almost every engagement in the northern and eastern section of the Union; and, although at each of the battles of Brandywine, White Marsh and Monmouth, he had a horse killed under him, he had the good fortune never to receive a wound.

In 1778, Mr. Reed was elected a member of Congress, and signed the Articles of Confederation. About this time, the British commis-

sioners, Governor Johnstone, Lord Carlisle and Mr. Eden, invested with power to treat concerning peace, arrived in America; the former of whom addressed private letters to Mr. Laurens, Mr. Dana, Mr. Morris, and Mr. Reed, offering them various inducements to lend themselves to his views. He caused information to be secretly communicated to General Reed, that, if he would exert his abilities to promote a reconciliation, £10,000 sterling, and the most valuable office in the colonies, should be at his disposal. The answer of Reed was, "I am not worth purchasing; but, such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it." In the same year, he was unanimously elected president of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, and continued in the office for the constitutional period of three years. At the time, there were violent parties in the State, and several serious commotions occurred, particularly a large armed insurrection in Philadelphia, which he suppressed, while he rescued a number of distinguished citizens from the most imminent danger of their lives, at the risk of his own, for which he received a vote of thanks from the legislature of the State. The revolt of the Pennsylvania line, also, in 1781, was suppressed through his instrumentality; and he was deputed, with General Potter, by the council of the state, with ample powers to redress the grievances complained of. To him, likewise, belongs the honour of having been the original detecter and exposer of the character of Arnold, whom he brought to trial for mal-practices while in command at Philadelphia, notwithstanding a violent opposition on the floor of Congress, and the exertions of a powerful party in Pennsylvania.

Amid the most difficult and trying scenes, the administration of Mr. Reed exhibited the most disinterested zeal and the greatest firmness and energy. His knowledge of law was very useful in a new and unsettled government; so that, although he found it in no small weakness and confusion, he left it, at the expiration of his term of office, in 1781, in as much tranquillity and stability as could be expected from the time and circumstances of the war. He then returned to his profession. In 1784, he again visited England, for the sake of his health; but his voyage was attended with but little good effect. On the 5th of March, in the following year, he died, in his forty-third year.

General Reed displayed inflexible patriotism, boldness, and a comprehensive mind in his public career, wielding a vast influence in council and field. In private life he was known to be purely moral, and a faithful friend.

JOHN DICKINSON.

The leading opponent of John Adams in the debate upon the Declaration of Independence was John Dickinson, of Delaware—an honest, able, patriotic, but timid statesman. He was born in Maryland, in December, 1732, and educated in Delaware, to which province his parents removed soon after his birth.

He read law in Philadelphia, and resided three years in the Temple, London. After his return to America, he practised law with success in Philadelphia. He was soon elected to the legislature of Pennsylvania, in which his superior qualifications as a speaker and a man of business gave him considerable influence. The attempts of the mother country upon the liberties of the colonies early awakened his attention. His first elaborate publication against the new policy of the British cabinet was printed at Philadelphia, in 1765, and entitled, *The late Regulations respecting the British Colonies on the Continent of America considered.* In that year he was deputed, by Pennsylvania, to attend the first Congress, held at New York, and prepared the draft of the bold resolutions of that Congress. In 1766 he published a spirited address on the same questions, to a committee of correspondence in Barbadoes. He next issued in Philadelphia, in 1767, his celebrated Farmer's Letters to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies—a production which had a great influence in enlightening the American people on the subject of their rights, and preparing them for resistance. They were reprinted in London, with a preface by Doctor Franklin, and published in French, at Paris.

In 1774, Mr. Dickinson wrote the resolves of the committee of Pennsylvania, and their instructions to their representatives. These instructions formed a profound and extensive essay on the constitutional power of Great Britain over the colonies in America, and in that shape they were published by the committee. While in Congress, he wrote the Address to the Inhabitants of Quebec; the first Petition to the King; the Address to the Armies; the second Petition to the King, and the Address to the several States; all among the ablest state-papers of the time. As an orator, he had few superiors in that body. He penned the famous Declaration of the United Colonies of North America, (July 6, 1775;) but he opposed the declaration of independence, believing that compromise was still practicable, and that his countrymen were not yet ripe for a complete separation from Great Britain. This rendered him for a time so unpopular, that he

withdrew from the public councils, and did not recover his seat in Congress until about two years afterward. He then returned, earnest in the cause of independence. His zeal was shown in the ardent address of Congress to the several States, of May, 1779, which he wrote and reported.

Mr. Dickinson was afterward president of the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, successively; and, in the beginning of 1788, being alarmed by the hesitation of some States to ratify the constitution proposed by the federal convention the year before, he published, for the purpose of promoting its adoption, nine very able letters, under the signature of *Fabius*. This signature he again used in fourteen letters, published in 1797, the object of which was to produce a favourable feeling in the United States toward France, whose revolution he believed to be then at an end. Before the period last mentioned, he had withdrawn to private life, at Wilmington, in the State of Delaware, where he died, February 14, 1808. His retirement was spent in literary studies, in charitable offices and the exercise of an elegant hospitality. His conversation and manners were very attractive; his countenance and person, uncommonly fine. His public services were eminent: his writings have been justly described as copious, forcible and correct; sometimes eloquently rhetorical and vehement, and generally rich in historical references and classical quotations.

The patriotism of Mr. Dickinson was of that manly nature which does not permit the statesman to sanction a measure simply because it chances to be popular, but holds him to what seems to tend to the best interests of the country.

NICHOLAS VAN DYKE.

Nicholas Van Dyke was distinguished in the politics of his native State, Delaware, during the Revolution, and after its termination, in the triumph of liberty. After having served with rigid fidelity in the councils of his country during her hour of trial, he was rewarded with her honours when peace and prosperity smiled over the land. He was elected to the Senate of the United States, and served in that body from the 4th of March, 1817, till January, 1827, when death removed him from the scene of his patriotic toil.

JOHN HANSON.

John Hanson was born in Maryland. He displayed energy and decisive patriotism at the commencement of the Revolutionary war. He was elected a delegate to Congress, and while a member of that body his reputation for practical ability steadily rose. In 1781, Mr. Hanson was elected president of Congress, and he continued to hold that office until 1783, when death removed him from the scene of his patriotic services.

HENRY LAURENS.

Henry Laurens was born in Charleston, South Carolina, in the year 1724. He took an early part in opposing the arbitrary claims of Great Britain, at the commencement of the American Revolution. When the provincial Congress of Carolina met in June, 1775, he was appointed its president; in which capacity he drew up a form of association, to be signed by all the friends of liberty, which indicated a most determined spirit. Being a member of the general Congress, after the resignation of Hancock, he was appointed president of that illustrious body in November, 1777. In 1780, he was deputed to solicit a loan from Holland, and to negotiate a treaty with the United Netherlands; but on his passage, he was captured by a British vessel on the Banks of Newfoundland. He threw his papers overboard, but they were recovered by a sailor. Being sent to England, he was committed to the Tower, on the 5th of October, as a state prisoner, on a charge of high-treason. Here he was confined more than a year, and was treated with great severity, being denied, for the most part, all intercourse with his friends, and forbidden the use of pen, ink, and paper. His capture occasioned no small embarrassment to the ministry. They dared not condemn him as a rebel, through fear of retaliation; and they were unwilling to release him, lest he should accomplish the object of his mission. The discoveries found in his papers led to a war with Great Britain and Holland, and Mr. Adams was appointed in his place to carry on the negotiation with the United Provinces.

Many propositions were then made to Mr. Laurens, which were repelled with indignation. At length, news being received that his

eldest son, a youth of such uncommon talents, exalted sentiments, and prepossessing manners and appearance, that a romantic interest is still attached to his name, had been appointed the special minister of Congress to the French court, and was there urging the suit of his country, with winning eloquence, the father was requested to write to his son, and urge his return to America; it being further hinted, that, as he was held a prisoner in the light of a rebel, his life should depend upon compliance. "My son is of age," replied the heroic father of an heroic son, "and has a will of his own. I know him to be a man of honour. He loves me dearly, and would lay down his life to save mine; but I am sure that he would not sacrifice his honour to save my life, and I applaud him." This veteran was, not many months after, released, with a request from Lord Shelburne that he would pass to the continent, and assist in negotiating a peace between Great Britain and the free United States of America, and France their ally.

Toward the close of the year 1781, his sufferings, which had, by that time become well known, excited the utmost sympathy for himself, but kindled the warmest indignation against the authors of his cruel confinement. Every attempt to draw concessions from this inflexible patriot having proved more than useless, his enlargement was resolved upon, but difficulties arose as to the mode of effecting it. Pursuing the same high-minded course which he had at first adopted, and influenced by the noblest feelings of the heart, he obstinately refused his consent to any act which might imply a confession that he was a British subject, for as such he had been committed on a charge of high-treason. It was finally proposed to take bail for his appearance at the Court of King's Bench, and when the words of the recognizance, "our sovereign lord the king," were read to Mr. Laurens, he distinctly replied in open court, "Not my sovereign!" With this declaration, he, with Messrs. Oswald and Anderson as his securities, were bound for his appearance at the next Court of King's Bench for Easter term, and for not departing without leave of the court, upon which he was immediately discharged. When the time appointed for his trial approached, he was not only exonerated from obligation to attend, but solicited by Lord Shelburne to depart for the continent to assist in a scheme for a pacification with America. The idea of being released, gratuitously, by the British government, sensibly moved him, for he had invariably considered himself as a prisoner of war. Possessed of a lofty sense of personal independence, and unwilling to be brought under the slightest obligation, he thus expressed himself: "I must not accept myself as a gift; and as

Congress once offered General Burgoyne for me, I have no doubt of their being now willing to offer Earl Cornwallis for the same purpose."

Close confinement in the Tower for more than fourteen months had shattered his constitution, and he was ever afterward a stranger to good health. As soon as his discharge was promulgated, he received from Congress a commission, appointing him one of their ministers for negotiating a peace with Great Britain. Arriving at Paris, in conjunction with Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay, he signed the preliminaries of peace on the 30th of November, 1782, by which the independence of the United States was unequivocally acknowledged. Soon after this, Mr. Laurens returned to Carolina. Entirely satisfied with the whole course of his conduct while abroad, it will readily be imagined that his countrymen refused him no distinctions within their power to bestow; but every solicitation to suffer himself to be elected governor, member of Congress, or of the legislature of the State, he positively withstood. When the project of a general convention for revising the federal bond of union was under consideration, he was chosen without his knowledge one of its members, but he refused to serve. Retired from the world and its concerns, he found delight in agricultural experiments, in advancing the welfare of his children and dependants, and in attentions to the interests of his friends and fellow-citizens.

He expired on the 8th of December, 1792, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

He directed his son to burn his body on the third day, as the sole condition of his inheriting an estate of £60,000.

Rigid virtue was characteristic of Mr. Laurens in public and private life. He had almost the austerity of Cato. His patriotism was as devoid of the alloy of ambition as that of any man who ever lived.

WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON.

South Carolina had a very distinguished delegation in the Congress that framed the Articles of Confederation. Among the members, William Henry Drayton had a very high reputation. He was born in South Carolina, in 1742.

He spent his youth and acquired his education in England. Soon after he came to manhood, he returned to Carolina, and there with

inferior opportunities, but superior industry, prosecuted his studies. In it he acquired the greater part of that knowledge for which he was afterward distinguished. He first began to write for the public about the year 1769. Under the signature of "Freeman" he stated several legal and constitutional objections to an association, or rather the mode of enforcing an association, for suspending the importation of British manufactures, which was then generally signed by the inhabitants. This involved him in a political controversy, in which he was opposed by Christopher Gadsden and John Mackenzie. In the year 1774 he wrote a pamphlet under the signature of "Freeman," which was addressed to the American Congress. In this he stated the grievances of America, and drew up a bill of American rights. This was well received. It substantially chalked out the line of conduct adopted by Congress then in session. He was elected a member of the provincial Congress, which sat in January, 1775; and in the course of that year was advanced to the presidency thereof. In the latter character he issued on the 9th of November, 1775, the first order that was given in South Carolina for firing on the British. The order was addressed to Colonel William Moultrie, and directed him "by every military operation to endeavour to oppose the passage of any British naval armament that may attempt to pass Fort Johnson." This was before Congress had decided on independence, and, in the then situation of Carolina, was a bold, decisive measure.

Before the Revolution, Mr. Drayton was one of the king's counsellors, and one of his assistant judges for the province. The first of these offices he resigned, and from the last he was dismissed by the officers of his Britannic majesty. On the formation of a popular constitution, he was reinstated in the corresponding offices of the State, and in the last advanced to the rank of chief-justice. He published his charge to the grand jury in April, 1776, which breathes all the spirit and energy of a mind which knows the value of freedom, and is determined to support it.

The following is an extract from the charge:—

"In short, I think it my duty to declare, in the awful seat of justice, and before Almighty God, that in my opinion, the Americans can have no safety but by the Divine favour, their own virtue, and their being so prudent as *not to leave it in the power of the British rulers to injure them.* Indeed the ruinous and deadly injuries received on our side; and the jealousies entertained, and which, in the nature of things, must daily increase against us on the other; demonstrate to a mind, in the least given to reflection upon the rise and fall of empires, that true reconcilement never can exist between

Great Britain and America, the latter being in subjection to the former. The Almighty created America to be independent of Britain: let us beware of the impiety of being backward to act as instruments in the Almighty hand, now extended to accomplish his purpose; and by the completion of which alone, America, in the nature of human affairs, can be secure against the craft and insidious designs of *her enemies who think her prosperity and power* ALREADY BY FAR TOO GREAT. In a word, our piety and political safety are so blended, that to refuse our labours in this Divine work, is to refuse to be a great, a free, a pious, and a happy people!

"And now having left the important alternative, political happiness or wretchedness under God, in a great degree in your own hands, I pray the Supreme Arbiter of the affairs of men, so to direct your judgment, as that you may act agreeably to what seems to be his will, revealed in his miraculous works in behalf of America, bleeding at the altar of liberty." This being anterior to the declaration of independence, was bold language. Several publications appeared from his pen, explaining the injured rights of his country, and encouraging his fellow-citizens to vindicate them. He has also left a manuscript history of the American Revolution in three folio volumes, brought down to the end of the year 1778, which he intended to continue and publish. His country, pleased with his zeal and talents, heaped offices upon him. He was appointed a member of Congress in 1778 and 1779. Soon after he had taken his seat, British commissioners came to America, with the hope of detaching the States from their alliance with France. Drayton took an active and decided part in favour of the measures adopted by his countrymen. His letters, published expressly to controvert the machinations of the British commissioners, were considered as replete with irresistible arguments, and written in the best style.

He died in Philadelphia, in 1779, while attending his duty in Congress, in the thirty-seventh year of his age. He was a statesman of great decision and energy, and one of the ablest political writers South Carolina has produced.

RICHARD HUTSON.

RICHARD HUTSON was not a prominent member of the South Carolina delegation in the Congress that framed the Articles of Confederation; but his activity and devotion to the patriot cause are

demonstrated by his connection with most of the important revolutionary movements made in his native State, and by the record of his earnest efforts to sustain the drooping spirits of his countrymen after the British under Cornwallis and Rawdon had overrun the Carolinas. Such a citizen was worthy of the highest civil trusts his countrymen had it in their power to bestow.

JOHN MATTHEWS.

John Matthews was one of the youngest of the statesmen South Carolina gave to the country during the war of independence. He was born in 1744, was well educated, and became a lawyer of reputation while still a young man. At the commencement of the Revolution he avowed himself an ardent Whig, and applied his abilities to vindicating the rights and liberties of his native land. In 1780, Mr. Matthews was elected to a seat in Congress, in which body he displayed much energy, eloquence, and general legislative ability, adding greatly to his reputation. In 1782 he was chosen to succeed Governor Rutledge in the chief-magistracy of South Carolina. Mr. Matthews held this honourable and responsible post for one year. In 1784 he was appointed a judge in the court of equity, which office he continued to hold until his death in 1802, at the age of fifty-eight years. He was a man of high talent, firm and resolute will, and of extensive information.

EDWARD TELFAIR.

Edward Telfair was one of the earliest promoters of the Revolution in Georgia. He was one of the "sons of liberty" who met at Tondee's tavern in Savannah, and organized a regular resistance to the measures of the British government. In 1774 he was appointed one of the committee to draw up resolutions to be adopted by the friends of liberty, and he continued his activity as a patriot throughout the great struggle. He was elected a member of Congress, in which body he was a conspicuous legislator and orator. After the war, Mr. Telfair was elected governor of Georgia, and he held the office several years, giving general satisfaction. After a long life of public service he died in Savannah in October, 1807.

Constitution of the United States.

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Section 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

Section 2. The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the

executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief-justice shall preside: And no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such

meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration

two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings;—And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and

account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION 1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature threof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president; neither shall any person be eligible to

that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress in-

formation of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on the demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

SECTION 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. The United States shall guaranty to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature,

or of the executive, (when the legislature cannot be convened,) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven and of the independence

of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GO. WASHINGTON,
President, and deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
JOHN LANGDON,
NICHOLAS GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS.
NATHANIEL GORHAM,
RUFUS KING.

CONNECTICUT.
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON,
ROGER SHERMAN.

NEW YORK.
ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

NEW JERSEY.
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON,
DAVID BREARLEY,
WILLIAM PATERSON,
JONATHAN DAYTON.

PENNSYLVANIA.
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
THOMAS MIFFLIN,
ROBERT MORRIS,
GEORGE CLYMER,
THOMAS FITZSIMONS,
JARED INGERSOLL,
JAMES WILSON,
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

DELAWARE.
GEORGE READ,
GUNNING BEDFORD, JUN.,
JOHN DICKINSON,
RICHARD BASSETT,
JACOB BROOM.

MARYLAND.
JAMES MCHENRY,
DANIEL OF ST. THO. JENIFER,
DANIEL CARROLL.

VIRGINIA.
JOHN BLAIR,
JAMES MADISON, JUN.

NORTH CAROLINA
WILLIAM BLOUNT,
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT,
HUGH WILLIAMSON.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
JOHN RUTLEDGE,
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY,
CHARLES PINCKNEY,
PIERCE BUTLER.

GEORGIA.
WILLIAM FEW,
ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS

TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, RATIFIED ACCORDING TO THE PROVISIONS OF THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE FOREGOING CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE THE FIRST. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE THE SECOND. A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE THE THIRD. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in a time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE THE FOURTH. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable

searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE THE FIFTH. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE THE SIXTH. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE THE SEVENTH. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE THE EIGHTH. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE THE NINTH. The enumeration in the constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE THE TENTH. The powers not delegated to the United States, by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE THE ELEVENTH. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE THE TWELFTH. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for president and vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with

themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as vice-president, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate; the president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the president. The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice-president; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.

Biographies of the Framers of the Constitution.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

A BIOGRAPHY of GEORGE WASHINGTON who was president of the convention which framed the constitution, will be found in that portion of the work which includes the lives of the Presidents of the United States.

JOHN LANGDON.

NEW HAMPSHIRE should be proud of the noble patriots she produced during the Revolutionary period. Stark, Whipple, and Langdon were men who would have been ornaments to mankind in any state or age.

JOHN LANGDON was born at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in 1739. At an early age he entered the counting-house of a merchant, and afterward owned and commanded a ship which was employed in the London and West-India trade, but soon exchanged the seafaring life for the business exclusively of a merchant, in which he was highly successful. At the opening of the Revolution, he took a decided part in behalf of the colonies. As early as 1774, when the mother country passed the Boston port bill, and menaced hostilities, Mr. Langdon, with John Sullivan and Thomas Pickering, raised a troop, proceeded to the fort at Great Island, disarmed the garrison, and conveyed the arms and ammunition to a place of safety. The royal government would have prosecuted him, but was deterred by the resolution of the inhabitants to shield him at all hazards.

In 1775, Mr. Langdon was a delegate to the general Congress of the colonies. In June, 1776, he resigned his seat in that body, for the place of navy-agent. In 1777, he was speaker of the Assembly of New Hampshire, and, when means were wanted to support a regiment, Langdon gave all his hard money, pledged his plate, and applied to the same purpose the proceeds of seventy hogsheads of tobacco. A brigade was raised with the means which he furnished, and with

that brigade General Stark achieved his memorable victory over the Hessians.

In 1785, Mr. Langdon was president of New Hampshire, and, in 1787, delegate in the convention that framed the federal constitution. Under this constitution, he was one of the first senators from New Hampshire. In 1805, he was elected governor of his State, and again in 1810. In 1801, President Jefferson solicited him in vain to accept the post of secretary of the navy at Washington. He died September 18, 1819.

Mr. Langdon was a patriot and public servant of great energy, decision, and generous purpose. His sacrifices at the time when his native State had the most pressing need of funds, will ever be remembered by grateful Americans.

NICHOLAS GILMAN.

Nicholas Gilman was the son of John Taylor Gilman, who held high civil offices in New Hampshire, and under the general government, and who was an active patriot during the Revolution. He was educated to the profession of the law, and soon assumed a distinguished position in his native State. He was appointed the colleague of John Langdon, in the convention that framed the federal constitution. In March, 1805, he was elected to a seat in the United States Senate, and he continued to be an active member of that body until 1814, when he died. He was a man of firm character and decided talent.

NATHANIEL GORHAM.

Nathaniel Gorham was born in Charlestown, Massachusetts, May 27, 1738.

He received an excellent education, and possessing uncommon talents, he always appeared to advantage in company with literary men. He settled in business at the place of his nativity, but being a constant, fearless, and independent lover of freedom, seemed to be formed more for public life than to succeed in mercantile pursuits.

Mr. Gorham was chosen representative for Charlestown, in 1771,

and every year till the commencement of the Revolutionary war. He was a very assiduous attendant on the house of representatives, and was a leader in all their debates. In 1779 he was elected a delegate of the convention which formed the constitution of his native State. In 1784 he was chosen a member of the Congress of the United States, and soon after elected president of that honourable body.

In 1787, Mr. Gorham was a member of the grand convention which formed the federal constitution. In this august body, he sustained a high reputation for his knowledge and integrity. He stood high with all parties for his wisdom and prudence, and eloquence in debate. He was on this account one of the most influential members of the State convention, which adopted the constitution. He died, June 11, 1796, at the age of fifty-eight years.

RUFUS KING.

The name of Rufus King stands high in our history, as that of a statesman, orator, and diplomatist of rare powers. He was born in 1755, at Scarborough, Maine, where his father was a wealthy merchant. Young King was entered at Harvard College, in 1773; but, in 1775, his collegiate pursuits were interrupted by the commencement of the Revolutionary war, the buildings appertaining to the institution having become the barracks of the American troops. The students were, in consequence, dispersed until the autumn of the same year, when they reassembled at Concord, where they remained until the evacuation of Boston by the British forces, in 1776. In 1777 he received his degree, and immediately afterward entered as a student of law, into the office of the celebrated Theophilus Parsons, at Newburyport. Before he was admitted to the bar in 1778, Mr. King volunteered his services in the enterprise conducted by General Sullivan and Count d'Estaing against the British in Rhode Island, and acted in the capacity of aid-de-camp to the former. In 1780 he began the practice of his profession, and soon after was elected representative of the town of Newburyport, in the legislature or General Court, as it is called, of Massachusetts, where his success paved the way to a seat in the old Congress in 1784. His most celebrated effort in the legislature was made in that year, on the occasion of the recommendation by Congress to the several States to grant to the general government a five per cent. impost, a compliance with which

he advocated with great power and zeal. He was re-elected a member of Congress in 1785 and 1786. In the latter year, he was sent by Congress, with Mr. Monroe, to the legislature of Pennsylvania, to remonstrate against one of its proceedings. A day was appointed for them to address the legislature, on which Mr. King rose first to speak; but, before he could open his lips, he lost the command of his faculties, and, in his confusion, barely retained presence of mind enough to request Mr. Monroe to take his place. Meanwhile, he recovered his self-possession, and on rising again, after complimenting his audience by attributing his misfortune to the effect produced upon him by so august an assemblage, proceeded to deliver an elegant and masterly speech.

In 1787, when the general convention met at Philadelphia for the purpose of forming a constitution for the country, Mr. King was sent to it by the legislature of Massachusetts, and, when the convention of that State was called, in order to discuss the system of government proposed, was likewise chosen a member of it by the inhabitants of Newburyport. In both assemblies, he was in favour of the present constitution. In 1788, he removed to New York city. In 1789, he was elected a member of the New York legislature, and, during its extra session, in the summer of that year, General Schuyler and himself were chosen the first senators from the State, under the constitution of the United States. In 1794, the British treaty was made public, and, a public meeting of the citizens of New York having been called respecting it, Mr. King and General Hamilton attended to explain and defend it; but the people were in such a ferment, that they were not allowed to speak. They therefore retired, and immediately commenced the publication of a series of essays upon the subject, under the signature of Camillus, the first ten of which, relating to the permanent articles of the treaty, were written by General Hamilton, and the remainder, relative to the commercial and maritime articles, by Mr. King. The most celebrated speech made by Mr. King, in the Senate of the United States, was in this year, concerning a petition which had been presented by some of the citizens of Pennsylvania against the right of Albert Gallatin to take a seat in the Senate, to which he had been chosen by that State, on the ground of want of legal qualification, in consequence of not having been a citizen of the United States for the requisite number of years. Mr. King spoke in support of the petition, and in answer to a speech of Aaron Burr in favour of Mr. Gallatin. Mr. Gallatin was excluded.

In the spring of 1796, Mr. King was appointed, by President Washington, minister plenipotentiary to the court of St. James, hav-

ing previously declined the offer of the department of state. The functions of that post he continued to discharge until 1803, when he returned home. In 1813, he was a third time sent to the senate by the legislature of New York, at a period when the nation was involved in hostilities with Great Britain. His speech on the burning of Washington by the enemy, was one of his most eloquent displays, and teemed with sentiments which had echoes from all parties. In 1816, while engaged with his senatorial duties at Washington, he was proposed as a candidate for the chief magistracy of the State of New York, by a convention of delegates from several of its counties. The nomination was made without his knowledge, and it was with great reluctance that he acceded to it, at the earnest solicitation of his friends. He was not, however, elected. In 1820, he was re-elected to the Senate of the United States, where he continued until the expiration of the term, in March, 1825. Several of the laws which he proposed and carried, in that interval, were of great consequence. In the famous Missouri question, he took the lead. On his withdrawal from the Senate, he accepted from President Adams the appointment of minister plenipotentiary at the court of London. During the voyage to England, his health was sensibly impaired. He remained abroad a twelvemonth, but his illness impeded the performance of his official duties, and proved fatal soon after his return home. He died like a Christian philosopher, April 29, 1827, in the seventy-third year of his age.

In person, Mr. King was somewhat above the middle size, and well proportioned. His countenance was frank, manly, and beaming with intelligence. His orations and writings were remarkable for their condensation and force of style. His conversation was brilliant and varied. As a statesman, all parties agreed that he ranked among the first of his age.

WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON.

William Samuel Johnson was the eldest son of the Rev. Dr. Johnson, first president of the college in New York. He was educated at Yale College, where he took the degree of bachelor of arts in 1744. At the bar he was an eminently graceful speaker and an able advocate, and soon rose to high professional reputation. After passing with honour through almost all the respectable offices of the colony, he was sent to England in 1766, by the legislature of Con-

necticut, to argue before the royal council a great land cause of the highest importance to the colony. He remained in England until 1771, and during this period the University of Oxford conferred on him the degree of doctor of civil law, and he was elected a member of the Royal Society. Some time after his return, he was appointed one of the judges of the superior court of Connecticut. He also represented the State for some years under the old confederation. He was sent as a delegate from his native State to the convention for forming a new constitution for the United States, and was elected a member of Congress on the first organization of the new constitution. In 1792 he was elected president of Columbia College, and he continued to fill that station with great dignity and usefulness until 1810.

Mr. Johnson died at Stratford, Connecticut, in 1819, at the age of ninety-three years.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

The chief debater in the convention which framed the federal constitution, and the chief advocate of that instrument after its completion, was Alexander Hamilton. He was a native of the Island of St. Croix, and was born in 1757. His father was the younger son of an English family, and his mother was an American. At the age of sixteen he accompanied his mother to New York, and entered a student of Columbia college, in which he continued about three years While a member of this institution the first buddings of his intellect gave presages of his future eminence. The contest with Great Britain called forth the first talents on each side, and his juvenile pen asserted the claims of the colonies against very respectable writers. His papers exhibited such evidence of intellect and wisdom, that they were ascribed to Mr. Jay, and when the truth was discovered, America saw with astonishment a lad of seventeen in the list of her able advocates. At the age of eighteen he entered the American army as an officer of artillery. The first sound of war awakened his martial spirit, and as a soldier he soon conciliated the regard of his brethren in arms. It was not long before he attracted the notice of Washington, who in 1777 selected him as an aid, with the rank of lieutenant colonel. His sound understanding, comprehensive views, application and promptitude soon gained him the entire confidence of his patron. In such a school, it was impossible but that his genius should be nourished. By intercourse with Wash-

ington, by surveying his plans, observing his consummate prudence, and by a minute inspection of the springs of national operations, he became fitted for command. Throughout the campaign, which terminated in the capture of Lord Cornwallis, Colonel Hamilton commanded a battalion of light infantry. At the siege of York, in 1781, when the second parallel was opened, two redoubts, which flanked it and were advanced three hundred yards in front of the British works, very much annoyed the men in the trenches. It was resolved to possess them, and, to prevent jealousies, the attack of the one was committed to the Americans and of the other to the French. The detachment of the Americans was commanded by the marquis de la Fayette, and Colonel Hamilton, at his own earnest request, led the advanced corps, consisting of two battalions. Toward the close of the day, on the 14th of October, the troops rushed to the charge without firing a single gun. The works were assaulted with irresistible impetuosity, and carried with but little loss. Eight of the enemy fell in the action; but notwithstanding the irritation lately produced by the infamous slaughter in Fort Griswold, not a man was killed who had ceased to resist.

Soon after the capture of Cornwallis, Hamilton sheathed his sword, and being encumbered with a family and destitute of funds, at the age of twenty-five applied to the study of the law. In this profession he soon rose to distinction. But his private pursuits could not detach him from regard to the public welfare. The violence which was meditated against the property and persons of all who remained in the city during the war, called forth his generous exertions, and by the aid of Governor Clinton the faithless and revengeful scheme was defeated. In a few years a more important affair demanded his talents. After witnessing the debility of the confederation, he was fully impressed with the necessity of an efficient general government, and he was appointed in 1787 a member of the federal convention for New York. He assisted in forming the constitution of our country. It did not indeed completely meet his wishes. He was afraid that it did not contain sufficient means of strength for its own preservation, and that in consequence we should share the fate of many other republics, and pass through anarchy to despotism. He was in favour of a more permanent executive and senate. He wished for a strong government, which would not be shaken by the conflict of different interests through an extensive territory, and which should be adequate to all the forms of national exigency. He was apprehensive that the increased wealth and population of the States would lead to encroachments on the Union, and he anticipated

the day, when the general government, unable to support itself, would fall. These were his views and feelings, and he freely expressed them. But the patriotism of Hamilton was not of that kind which yields every thing because it cannot accomplish all that it desires. Believing the constitution to be incomparably superior to the old confederation, he exerted all his talents in its support, though it did not rise to his conception of a perfect system. By his pen in the papers signed Publius, and by his voice in the convention of New York he contributed much to its adoption. When the government was organized in 1789, Washington placed him at the head of the treasury. In the new demands which were now made upon his talents, the resources of his mind did not fail him. In his reports he proposed plans for funding the debt of the Union and for assuming the debts of the respective States, for establishing a bank and mint, and for procuring a revenue. He wished to redeem the reputation of his country by satisfying her creditors, and to combine with the government such a moneyed interest as might facilitate its operations. But while he opened sources of wealth to thousands by establishing public credit, and thus restoring the public paper to its original value, he did not enrich himself. He did not take advantage of his situation, nor improve the opportunity he enjoyed for acquiring a fortune. Though accused of amassing wealth, he did not vest a dollar in the public funds. He was exquisitely delicate in regard to his official character, being determined if possible to prevent the impeachment of his motives, and preserve his integrity and good name unimpaired.

In the early stage of the administration, a disagreement existed between Mr. Hamilton and the secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson, which increased till it issued in such open hostility, and introduced such confusion in the cabinet, that Washington found it necessary to address a letter to each, recommending forbearance and moderation. Mr. Hamilton was apprehensive of danger from the encroachment of the States, and wished to add new strength to the general government; while Mr. Jefferson entertained little jealousy of the State sovereignties, and was rather desirous of checking and limiting the exercise of the national authorities, particularly the power of the executive. Other points of difference existed, and a reconciliation could not be effected. In the beginning of 1793, after intelligence of the rupture between France and Great Britain had been received, Hamilton, as one of the cabinet of the president, supported the opinion that the treaty with France was no longer binding, and that a nation might absolve itself from the obligations of real treaties,

when such a change takes place in the internal situation of the other contracting party, as renders the continuance of the connection disadvantageous or dangerous. He advised therefore, that the expected French minister should not be received in an unqualified manner. The secretary of state on the other hand was of opinion that the revolution in France had produced no change in the relations between the two countries, and could not weaken the obligation of treaties; and this opinion was embraced by Washington. The advice of Hamilton was followed in regard to the insurrection in Pennsylvania in 1794, and such a detachment was sent out under his own command that it was suppressed without effusion of blood. He remained but a short time afterward in office. As his property had been wasted in the public service, the care of a rising family made it his duty to retire, that by renewed exertions in his profession he might provide for their support. He accordingly resigned his office on the last of January, 1795, and was succeeded by Mr. Wolcott. When a provisional army was raised in 1798 in consequence of the injuries and demands of France, Washington suspended his acceptance of the command of it on the condition, that Hamilton should be his associate and the second in command. This arrangement was accordingly made. After the adjustment of our dispute with the French republic, and the discharge of the army, he returned again to his profession in the city of New York. In this place he passed the remainder of his days.

In June, 1804, Colonel Burr, vice-president of the United States, addressed a letter to General Hamilton, requiring his acknowledgment or denial of the use of any expression derogatory to the honour of the former. This demand was deemed inadmissible, and a duel was the consequence. After the close of the circuit court, the parties met at Hoboken on the morning of Wednesday, July 11, and Hamilton fell on the same spot where his son a few years before had fallen, in obedience to the same principle of honour, and in the same violation of the laws of God and of man. He was carried into the city, and being desirous of receiving the sacrament of the Lord's supper, he immediately sent for the Rev. Dr. Mason. As the principles of his church prohibited him from administering the ordinance in private, this minister of the gospel informed General Hamilton that the sacrament was an exhibition and pledge of the mercies which the Son of God has purchased, and that the absence of the sign did not exclude from the mercies signified, which were accessible to him by faith in their gracious Author. He replied, "I am aware of that. It is only as a sign

that I wanted it." In the conversation which ensued, he disavowed all intention of taking the life of Colonel Burr, and declared his abhorrence of the whole transaction. When the sin of which he had been guilty was intimated to him, he assented with strong emotion; and when the infinite merit of the Redeemer, as the propitiation for sin, the sole ground of our acceptance with God, was suggested, he said with emphasis, "I *have* a tender reliance on the mercy of the Almighty through the merits of the Lord Jesus Christ." The Rev. Bishop Moore was afterward sent for, and after making suitable inquiries of the penitence and faith of General Hamilton, and receiving his assurance that he would never again, if restored to health, be engaged in a similar transaction, but would employ all his influence in society to discountenance the barbarous custom, administered to him the communion. After this his mind was composed. He expired about two o'clock on Thursday July 12, 1804, aged about forty-seven years.

General Hamilton possessed very uncommon powers of mind. To whatever subject he directed his attention, he was able to grasp it, and in whatever he engaged, in that he excelled. So stupendous were his talents, and so patient was his industry, that no investigation presented difficulties which he could not conquer. In the class of men of intellect he held the first rank. His eloquence was of the most interesting kind, and when new exertions were required, he rose in new strength, and touching at his pleasure every string of pity or terror, of indignation or grief, he bent the passions of others to his purpose. At the bar he gained the first eminence.

He was an honest politician; and his frankness has been commended even by those who considered his political principles as hostile to the American confederated republic. His views of the necessity of a firm general government rendered him a decided friend of the union of the American States. His feelings and language were indignant toward every thing which pointed at its dissolution. His hostility to every influence which leaned toward the project was stern and steady, and in every shape it encountered his reprobation.

With all his pre-eminence of talents, and amiable as he was in private life, General Hamilton is yet a melancholy proof of the influence which intercourse with a depraved world has in perverting the judgment. In principle he was opposed to duelling, his conscience was not hardened, and he was not indifferent to the happiness of his wife and children; but no consideration was strong enough to prevent him from exposing his life in single combat. His own views

of usefulness were followed in contrariety to the injunctions of his Maker and Judge.

He published the letters of Phocion, which were in favour of the loyalists after the peace. The Federalist, a series of essays, which appeared in the public papers in the interval between the publication and the adoption of the constitution of the United States, or soon after, and which was designed to elucidate and support its principles, was written by him in conjunction with Mr. Jay and Mr. Madison. He wrote all the numbers, excepting numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, and 54, which were written by Mr. Jay; numbers 10, 14, and 37 to 48 inclusive, by Mr. Madison; and numbers 18, 19, and 20, which he and Mr. Madison wrote conjointly. This work has been published in two volumes, and is held in the highest estimation. His reports while secretary of the treasury are very long, and display great powers of mind. Some of them are preserved in the American Museum. In the report upon manufactures, he controverts the principles of Adam Smith. In the papers signed Pacificus, written in 1793, while he justified the proclamation of neutrality, he also supported his opinion that we were absolved from the obligation of our treaties with France, and that justice was on the side of the coalition of the European powers for the re-establishment of the French monarchy. He published also observations on certain documents, &c., being a defence of himself against the charge of peculation, 1797; and a letter concerning the public conduct and character of his excellency John Adams, president of the United States, 1800. In this letter he endeavours to show, that the venerable patriot, who was more disposed than himself to maintain peace with France, was unworthy of being replaced in the high station which he occupied.

WILLIAM LIVINGSTON.

The Livingston family contributed many able and devoted patriots to the service of America. Among these, William Livingston, Governor of New Jersey was conspicuous during the Revolution. He was born in New York about the year 1723, and was graduated at Yale College in 1741. He afterward pursued the study of the law. Possessing a strong and comprehensive mind, a brilliant imagination, and a retentive memory, and improving with unwearied diligence the literary advantages which he enjoyed, he soon rose to eminence in

his profession. He early embraced the cause of civil and religious liberty. When Great Britain advanced her arbitrary claims, he employed his pen in opposing them, and in vindicating the rights of his countrymen. After sustaining some important offices in New York, he removed to New Jersey, and as a representative of this State was one of the principal members of the first Congress in 1774.

In 1776, on the formation of the new constitution of the State, he was elected the first governor; and such was his integrity and republican virtue that he was annually re-elected until his death. During our struggles for liberty, he bent his exertions to support the independence of his country. By the keenness and severity of his political writings he exasperated the British, who distinguished him as an object of their peculiar hatred. His pen had no inconsiderable influence in exciting that indignation and zeal, which rendered the militia of New Jersey so remarkable for the alacrity with which on any alarm they arrayed themselves against the common enemy.

In 1787 he was appointed a delegate to the grand convention which formed the constitution of the United States. After having sustained the office of governor for fourteen years, with great honour to himself, and usefulness to the State, he died at his seat near Elizabethtown, July 25, 1790.

Governor Livingston was remarkably plain and simple in his dress and manners. He was convivial, easy, mild, witty, and fond of anecdote. Fixed and unshaken in Christian principles, his life presented an example of incorruptible integrity, strict honour, and warm benevolence.

His writings evince a vigorous mind and a refined taste. Intimately acquainted with ancient and modern literature, he acquired an elegance of style which placed him among the first writers of his time.

DAVID BREARLEY.

David Brearley was born in New Jersey, about the year 1763, and at the age of eighteen he received the honours of Princeton College. On leaving that celebrated seminary, he commenced the study of the law, and in a few years stood foremost at the bar of his native State.

In consideration of his distinguished talents as a lawyer and statesman, he was unanimously elected a member of the grand convention

which met at Philadelphia, in 1787, for framing the constitution of the United States, and his name is affixed to that charter of our liberties.

In 1789 he was appointed by President Washington, chief-justice of the State of New Jersey, which office he held with distinguished honour to himself and his country until his death, which took place at his seat, near Trenton, August 23, 1790, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

Mr. Brearley was cut off in the bloom of his powers, and when the highest hopes were entertained of his future usefulness. To have reached the position of chief-justice at the age of twenty-six years, was an almost unprecedented instance of the triumph of youthful genius, and sufficient of itself to inspire his friends with glorious anticipations. As an advocate he was always eloquent and forcible; and as a judge he was learned and impartial.

WILLIAM PATTERSON.

Governor Patterson was one of the most accomplished statesmen whom New Jersey has produced. He was born in that State in 1745. Receiving an excellent education, he graduated at Princeton College in 1763, and then turned his attention to the study of the law. During the Revolution, Mr. Patterson employed his eminent abilities in furthering the cause of his country. After the struggle had ended, and the formation of a federal union was proposed, he was sent as a delegate to the convention which met at Philadelphia for that purpose. His course in that body increased his reputation as a statesman; and he was chosen senator from New Jersey into the first Congress after the adoption of the federal constitution. In 1790, Mr. Patterson was elected governor of New Jersey, and not long afterward he was appointed an associate judge of the supreme court of the United States. Mr. Patterson died in 1806, at the age of sixty-three years. He possessed a vigorous, comprehensive mind, and a large fund of knowledge in law and politics.

JONATHAN DAYTON.

Colonel Elias Dayton was a distinguished patriot and soldier of New Jersey in the war of independence, and his son, Jonathan Dayton, was one of the ablest civilians of that State, after independence had been achieved. Jonathan Dayton was born at Elizabethtown, New Jersey, shortly before the Revolution. He was carefully educated and prepared for the career of a lawyer and statesman, and from his first entrance into public life his promotion was rapid. After being appointed to several offices in his native State, Mr. Dayton was in 1788 elected a member of the national house of representatives. In the preceding year he had served as one of the delegates to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States. He was also elected a senator in Congress, and took his seat on the 4th of March, 1799. On the 3d of March, 1805, his term expired, and he retired from public office. Mr. Dayton was an accomplished lawyer, a firm friend to the constitution, and one of its ablest defenders.

THOMAS MIFFLIN.

General Thomas Mifflin was one of the most distinguished of the Pennsylvania delegates who signed the federal constitution. He was born in 1744, of parents who were Quakers or Friends. His education was intrusted to the Rev. Dr. Smith, with whom he was connected in cordial intimacy for more than forty years. Active and zealous, he engaged early in opposition to the measures of the British Parliament. He was a member of the first Congress in 1774. He took arms, and was among the first officers commissioned on the organization of the continental army, being appointed quartermaster general in August, 1775. For this offence he was read out of the Society of Quakers. In 1777 he was very useful in animating the militia, and enkindling the spirit which seemed to have been damped; but he was also suspected in this year of being unfriendly to the commander-in-chief, and of wishing to have some other person appointed in his place. His sanguine disposition and his activity might have rendered him insensible to the value of that coolness and caution which were essential to the preservation of such an army as was then under the command of Washington.

In 1787, General Mifflin was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, and his name is affixed to that instrument. In October, 1788, he succeeded Franklin as president of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, in which station he continued till October, 1790. In September a constitution for this State was formed by a convention, in which he presided, and he was chosen the first governor. In 1794, during the insurrection in Pennsylvania, he employed to the advantage of his country the extraordinary powers of elocution with which he was endowed. The imperfection of the militia laws was compensated by his eloquence. He made a circuit through the lower counties, and at different places publicly addressed the militia on the crisis in the the affairs of their country, and through his animating exhortations the State furnished the quota required. He was succeeded in the office of governor by Mr. McKean, at the close of the year 1799, and died at Lancaster, January 20, 1800, in the fifty-seventh year of his age. He was an active and zealous patriot, who had devoted much of his life to the public service.

THOMAS FITZSIMMONS.

Thomas Fitzsimmons does not appear to have been a prominent member of the convention which framed the constitution. Nor does his name appear in connection with the movements of his fellow-citizens during the Revolution. But as there were no men of mean capacity in the convention, we may suppose that Mr. Fitzsimmons was, by talent and energy, rendered worthy of the high legislative trust which the people of his native State saw fit to place in his hands.

JARED INGERSOLL.

Jared Ingersoll was born in 1749. He graduated at Yale College, and then began the practice of the law in Philadelphia, where he soon acquired a high reputation, although brought in conflict with the most distinguished lawyers of the day. He was elected to a seat in Congress under the confederation, and was chosen as one of the representatives of Pennsylvania in the convention which assembled to frame the federal constitution. In both these bodies he made a decided im-

pression as a learned and able man. Soon afterward he became attorney-general of Pennsylvania, which office he held until 1816, when he resigned. At the time of his death he was a judge. In 1812, Mr. Ingersoll was the federal candidate for the vice-presidency of the United States. The candidates of the Republican or war party were, however, elected. Mr. Ingersoll died in 1822, at the age of seventy-three.

GUNNING BEDFORD, JUN.

GUNNING BEDFORD, JUN., was a patriotic statesman of the Revolution. He was chosen governor of Delaware in 1796, and he discharged the duties of his office to the general satisfaction. He was then appointed district judge of the United States court, and he continued to hold that office until his death in 1815. He was one of the ablest patriots that the little State of Delaware produced during the Revolutionary period.

RICHARD BASSETT.

RICHARD BASSETT was a distinguished patriot of the Revolution. He was elected governor of Delaware, was a member of the old Continental Congress, one of the framers of the present constitution, and then a member of the senate of the United States. In 1801, Mr. Bessett was placed upon the bench of the federal judiciary. But the repeal of the act constituting the courts was effected under Jefferson, and Judge Bassett was deprived of his office, (1802.) He died in 1815. Mr. Bassett was a man of energy, talent, and learning.

JACOB BROOM.

JACOB BROOM was a native of Delaware, and a descendant of one of the most respectable families of that State. He received a thorough education, and became an eminent lawyer early in life. Having been chosen to represent his native State in the convention

that framed the constitution, Mr. Broom became a prominent member of that body. He was afterward an active man in the politics of his native State. Some of his descendants are now among the distinguished citizens of Pennsylvania.

JOHN BLAIR.

The Virginia colleague of Madison in signing the federal constitution was John Blair. This distinguished man was born in that State about the year 1731. On receiving a collegiate education, he entered upon the study of the law, and in a very few years rose to the head of his profession. From eminence at the bar, his course to political distinction was rapid and successful. He was called by the voice of his fellow-citizens to some of the highest and most important trusts, which he faithfully discharged, at a time when the state of the country wore the most gloomy aspect, and by his exertions contributed essentially to its liberty and independence.

In 1787, at which time Mr. Blair was judge of the court of appeals, the legislature of Virginia, finding the judiciary system inconvenient, established circuit courts, the duties of which they directed the judges of the courts of appeals to perform. These judges, among whose names are those of Blair, Pendleton, and Wythe, remonstrated, and declared the act unconstitutional. In the same year he took his seat in the convention which met at Philadelphia to frame the federal constitution, and was one of its most active members. To that instrument the names of Blair and Madison are affixed as the deputies from Virginia. In September, 1789, when the government which he had assisted in establishing had commenced its operations, he was appointed by President Washington an associate judge of the supreme court of the United States. He died September 12, 1800, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. Judge Blair was an amiable, accomplished, and truly virtuous man.

JAMES MADISON, Jun.

A biography of Mr. Madison will be found among those of the Presidents of the United States.

WILLIAM BLOUNT.

William Blount was born in North Carolina in 1744. Rising to distinction as a lawyer and statesman, he was sent as a delegate to the convention which framed the federal constitution. In 1790 he was appointed governor of the territory south of the Ohio. In 1796 he was chosen president of the convention of Tennessee. He was afterward elected by that State to a seat in the United States senate, but was expelled in July, 1797, for having instigated the Indians to assist the British in conquering the Spanish territories near the United States. He died at Knoxville, Tennessee, in March, 1800.

RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT.

Richard Dobbs Spaight was an active patriot of North Carolina during the Revolution, and he remained firm in the faith when the British seemed completely triumphant in the South. He was a young man when Gates led his doomed army southward. He hastened to join the North Carolina forces, then commanded by General Caswell, and was appointed aid-de-camp to that officer. Throughout the struggle, Mr. Spaight showed a gallant spirit. The people of his native State, appreciating his patriotism and capacity for public office, appointed him a delegate to the convention which framed the constitution. He was an active and influential member of that body, and strongly advocated the adoption of the federal constitution in North Carolina. In 1792, Mr. Spaight was elected governor of the State, and in that position his energy and ability were conspicuous. He was one of the noblest citizens of whom North Carolina could boast in the days of trial. We find no record of the precise time of his decease; but notice in our researches into the biography of those patriots who signalized themselves by virtue, courage and patriotism in the early days of the republic, that North Carolina furnished her full share.

HUGH WILLIAMSON.

Hugh Williamson, M.D., LL.D., one of the signers of the federal constitution, was born in West Nottingham, Pennsylvania, on the 5th of December, 1735. At the age of sixteen, he entered the first class in the College of Philadelphia, and at the first commencement held in that college he received the degree of bachelor of arts. He afterward commenced the study of divinity with Dr. Samuel Finley, and prosecuted it with such success that in 1759 he was licensed to preach. In 1760 he received the degree of master of arts; and was soon after appointed professor of mathematics in that institution.

In 1764, Mr. Williamson resigned his professorship and left his native country for Europe, to prosecute his medical studies at the University of Edinburgh. After enjoying the medical lectures of that institution for several years, he went to London, where he remained twelve months diligently pursuing his studies. From London he crossed over to Holland, and completed his medical education at Utrecht. After his return to this country, he commenced the practice of medicine in Philadelphia, and met with great success.

In 1769, in conjunction with several of the American astronomers, Mr. Williamson was employed in making observations on the transit of Venus, which happened in that year; and which were afterward referred to with peculiar notice and approbation by the astronomers of Europe. In 1770 he published "Observations upon the change of the climate of the United States." In consideration of these valuable papers, he was elected honorary member of the Holland Society of Sciences; of the Society of Arts and Sciences of Utrecht; and as a further reward of his literary labours, the degree of doctor of laws was conferred upon him by the University of Leyden.

In 1773, Mr. Williamson was appointed, in conjunction with Dr. John Ewing, to make a tour through England, Scotland, and Ireland, to solicit benefactions for the college at Newark. During his stay in London, he procured the celebrated letters of Hutchinson and Oliver, in which they had secretly laboured to paint, in the most odious colours, the character of the people of Massachusetts. He lost no time in delivering them into the hands of Dr. Franklin, who afterward transmitted them to his constituents in Boston. "The indignation and animosity, which were excited on their perusal,

roused the people to a greater opposition to the measures of Great Britain."

Mr. Williamson then passed into Holland, where he heard the news of the declaration of independence. As soon as he could arrange his affairs, he sailed for America, and arrived at Philadelphia in March, 1779. Shortly after, he settled in North Carolina, and commenced the practice of physic at Edenton, and afterward removed to Newbern. In 1780, he was appointed a surgeon in the army. In 1782 he took his seat as a representative in the House of Commons of North Carolina; from thence he was sent to the general Congress; and in 1786 he was appointed a member to revise and amend the constitution of the United States.

In 1787, Mr. Williamson was appointed a delegate from North Carolina, in the general convention at Philadelphia who formed and signed the federal constitution of the United States. While in Congress, he enjoyed a large share of influence, and was esteemed for the purity of his intentions and his inflexible devotedness to the interests of his country. In 1811 he pubished "Observations on the climate in the different parts of America, compared with the climate in corresponding parts of the other continent." In 1812 he published the "History of North Carolina," 2 vols. octavo. His other writings are numerous and detached, and are to be found in many of the literary and scientific journals of our country.

In 1814, Mr. Williamson took an active part in the formation of the "Literary and Philosophical Society of New York." His intellectual faculties remained to the last period of his life unbroken and in their full vigour. He died on the 22d of May, 1819, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

JOHN RUTLEDGE.

Unquestionably the great character of South Carolina during the Revolution was John Rutledge, who was for a time invested with dictatorial powers. He possessed all the qualities which constitute the man born to win and command—an eloquence of astonishing power, and a daring and decision of will which always placed him before his fellow-countrymen.

He was born in South Carolina in 1739. In 1761 he commenced the practice of law, and soon became eminent in his profession. He

was sent a delegate to the first Continental Congress which met at New York in 1765; and "the members of the distant provinces were surprised at the eloquence of the young member from Carolina." At the commencement of the Revolution he was by successive elections a member of Congress till the year 1776, when he was elected president and commander-in-chief of South Carolina, in conformity to a constitution established by the people in that year. In this office he rendered important service to his country. General Lee, who commanded the continental troops, pronounced Sullivan's Island to be a "slaughter-pen," and either gave orders, or was disposed to give them, for its evacuation. The troops which Carolina had raised before Congress had declared independence, remained subject to the authority of the State, and at this early period were not under the command of the officers of Congress. To prevent the evacuation of the fort on Sullivan's Island, President Rutledge, shortly before the commencement of the action on the 28th of June, 1776, wrote the following laconic note to General Moultrie, who had the command on the island: "General Lee wishes you to evacuate the fort. You will not do it without an order from me. I would sooner cut off my hand than write one. JOHN RUTLEDGE." In 1778 he resigned the office of president; but at the next election he was reinstated in the executive authority of the State, under a new constitution, with the name of governor, substituted in the place of president. In 1784 he was elected a judge of the court of chancery in South Carolina. In 1787 he assisted in framing a national constitution; and as soon as it was in operation, he was designated by President Washington as first associate judge of the supreme court of the United States. In 1791 he was elected chief-justice of South Carolina. He was afterward appointed chief-justice of the United States. "Thus for more than thirty years, with few short intervals, he served his country in one or other of the departments of government; and in all with fidelity and ability."

Mr. Rutledge died on the 23d of January, 1800. He was one of the greatest men whom this country has produced. To his government during the war in South Carolina, is to be attributed in a great degree the successful termination to which it was brought. He possessed a quick penetration, and soon perceived the superior merit of Greene, Sumpter, Marion, and Pickens, whose operations he seconded with great energy and skill. Although invested with dictatorial powers, he never gave occasion for complaint, and retained the confidence of the patriots to the end.

CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY.

Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, distinguished as a patriot, soldier and diplomatist, was born in South Carolina in 1740. His education was received in England, where he passed through Westminster school and the University of Oxford with a high reputation for ability and industry. After reading law at the Temple, he returned to Carolina in 1769, but was not able to practise his profession for any length of time, the commencement of the Revolution obliging him to exchange the gown for the sword. He was first appointed a captain in the continental line, and, soon afterward, commander of the first regiment of Carolina infantry. When the South had been freed, for a period, from invasion, by Moultrie's gallant defence of the fort on Sullivan's Island, Colonel Pinckney joined the northern army, and was made aid-de-camp to Washington. In that capacity he was present at the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. When the South was again menaced with danger, he returned to Carolina, and displayed great resolution and intrepidity, on the rapid and harassing march which saved that city from General Provost, and on the subsequent invasion of Georgia, and the assault on the lines of Savannah. On the approach of the army under Sir Henry Clinton, and of the fleet conducted by Admiral Arbuthnot, he was intrusted with the command of the fort on Sullivan's Island. A favourable breeze and a flowing tide, however, enabled the fleet to sail into the port of Charleston, beyond the reach of his guns. He then hastened with a part of the garrison to aid in defending the city, and was for continuing hostilities to the last extremity, not, as he said, because he thought they would eventually be able to repel the enemy, but because "we shall so cripple the army before us, that, although we may not live to enjoy the benefits ourselves, yet to the United States they will prove incalculably great." Other counsel, however, prevailed, and he was made prisoner with the rest of the besieged.

Some time after the return of peace, Colonel Pinckney was placed in command of the militia of the lower division of the State, but was very soon appointed by Washington, whose confidence and friendship he enjoyed in a high degree, minister plenipotentiary to France. He resigned his commission in consequence, and sailed for Europe. The hostile feeling of the French directory toward this country, caused them to reject its conciliatory propositions in an insulting manner,

and to order its minister out of the territories of the republic. General Pinckney immediately communicated to the government the indignities which he had received, and retired to Holland. Not long afterward, he was joined by General Marshal and Mr. Gerry, with fresh instructions to reiterate propositions to the directory for the adjustment of differences. When, at length, war was inevitable, and the whole United States were resounding with his celebrated sentiment, "Millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute," he returned home, having been named a major-general by Washington, who had been placed at the head of the forces raised for the protection of the American shores. Superior rank, however, was accorded to General Hamilton, who had been his junior during the Revolution. Some one spoke to General Pinckney of this preference as unjust, but he briefly answered, that he was satisfied that General Washington had sufficient reasons for it. "Let us," he continued, "first dispose of our enemies; we shall then have leisure to settle the question of rank."

Previously to his going to France, General Pinckney had been offered by President Washington several places under government of the highest importance, all of which, however, private considerations obliged him to decline. The first was that of judge of the supreme court; the next that of secretary of war, on the resignation of General Knox; and then that of secretary of state, when Randolph had been removed. He was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, and afterward, in the convention of South Carolina, assembled for deliberating upon the instrument, he contributed greatly to its adoption. He died in August, 1825. As a lawyer, General Pinckney was distinguished for profound and accurate learning, and strength and ingenuity of reasoning, without having much pretension to eloquence. In his practice he was highminded and liberal, never receiving any compensation from the widow and orphan. His literary attainments were extensive, especially his classical knowledge; and no one was a more zealous friend to the advancement of learning. For more than fifteen years before his death, he acted as president of the Bible Society of Charleston—an office to which he was named with unanimity by the Christians of almost every sect.

CHARLES PINCKNEY.

Charles Pinckney was born in Charleston, South Carolina, in the year 1758. Unaided by a college education, he became by the assistance of private instructers a proficient in the languages of Greece, Rome, and France, and in all acquirements necessary to form a statesman. Ardent and impassioned in the pursuit of literature and distinction, he did not long remain unknown. At the commencement of the Revolution, he took a share in the struggle for independence, and was one of those patriots who underwent seven years calamity to restore liberty and independence to his country.

At the age of twenty-seven, Mr. Pinckney was elected a member of the State legislature, which place he held until the year 1787, when he was unanimously elected by that body one of the delegates to the federal convention which met at Philadelphia to frame the present constitution. Though youngest in this august body, yet he has been ranked among the most conspicuous in eloquence and efficiency. He advocated an energetic general government. Of the various propositions which he originated, there is one which, though not a part of the constitution, yet the people appear to have adopted in practice. This was, that the president's tenure should be seven years, and afterward ineligible. By custom he is continued for eight years, but the example of Washington in declining a third election, has established the utmost limit of a president's term.

Mr. Pinckney's distinguished services were rewarded with the applause of his constituents, and as an evidence of their high opinion, he was advanced to the chief-magistracy of his native State, soon after he had been auxiliary in procuring the adoption of the new constitution by the State convention. In the year 1798 he was elected a member of the Senate of the United States. He was afterward appointed ambassador to the court of Spain, where, besides fulfilling his official duties, he collected a fund of information on the manners, laws, and customs of the old world. Upon his return from Europe, his native State elected him for the fourth time governor.

The eloquence of Mr. Pinckney was luminous, fervid, and without acrimony; his enunciation was full, ardent, and impressive. Gifted with unusual colloquial powers, urbane in manners, with a temper of great amenity, he always added to the enjoyments of social inter-

course. Though visited with his portion of mortal frailty, yet he was a kind master, an indulgent parent, and a devoted patriot. Adversity presented him a chalice often overflowing, yet he abandoned neither hope nor his equanimity; and, after a life of utility and vicissitude, calmly sunk into that sleep where ambition cannot excite, nor the pains of misfortune invade. He died October 29, 1824, at the advanced age of sixty-six years.

PIERCE BUTLER.

Pierce Butler was descended from the family of the Dukes of Ormond, in Ireland. Before the Revolution he was a major in a British regiment at Boston. He afterward became an advocate of the republican institutions of America. In 1787 he was a delegate from South Carolina to Congress, and then a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States. He was one of the first senators elected by South Carolina after the adoption of the federal constitution. This eminent man died in 1822, at the age of 77 years.

WILLIAM FEW.

Of this patriotic individual, we only know that he was an active and prominent lawyer of Georgia, at the time of the call for the convention to frame the constitution of the United States. He did not take an active part in the deliberations of that august body, but represented correctly the sentiments of the people of his native State. He retired from public life after the organization of the national government. He was one of those men, "few and far between," who effect more by solid weight of character than many can by eloquent speech or restless action.

ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

Abraham Baldwin, a distinguished statesman, was graduated at Yale College in 1772, and distinguished for great scholarship. In 1785 he was appointed president of the University of Georgia. He was a member of the grand convention, which held its session from May 25, to September 17, 1787, and framed the constitution of the United States. To that instrument he affixed his name as one of the deputies from Georgia. After the organization of government, he was elected a senator of the United States, and while in the discharge of his official duties, he died at Washington, March 2, 1807.

Lives of the Presidents of the United States,

AND SKETCHES OF THEIR ADMINISTRATIONS,

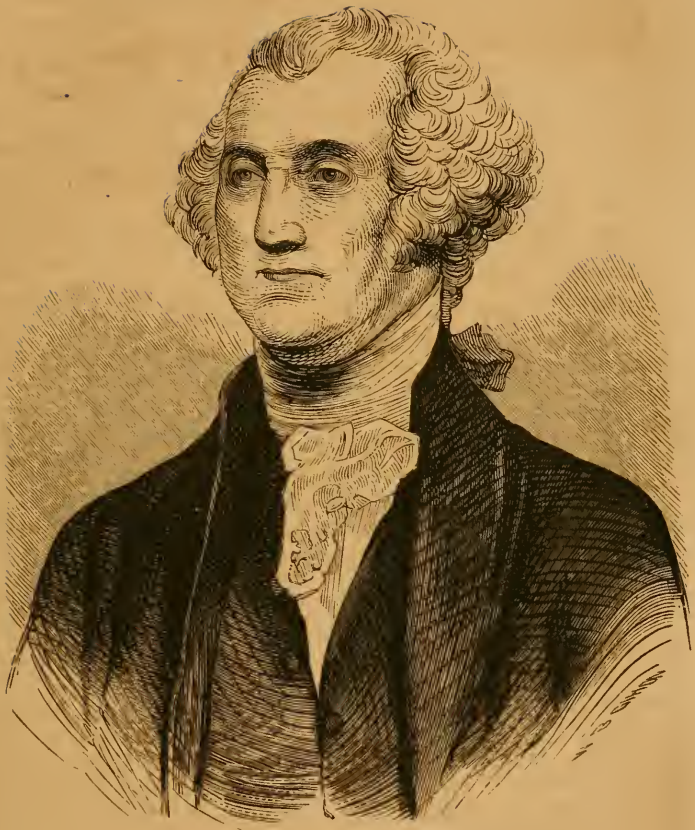
TOGETHER WITH

Biographies of the Vice-Presidents and the Members of the Cabinets.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

THE pure and glorious name of WASHINGTON heads the list of the Presidents of the United States. He was the third son of Mr. Augustine Washington, and was born at Bridges Creek, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia, February 22, 1732. His great-grandfather had emigrated to that place from the North of England about the year 1657. At the age of ten years he lost his father, and the patrimonial estate descended to his elder brother, Mr. Lawrence Washington, who in the year 1740 had been engaged in the expedition against Carthagena. In honour of the British admiral, who commanded the fleet employed in that enterprise, the estate was called Mount Vernon. At the age of fifteen, agreeably to the wishes of his brother, as well as to his own urgent request to enter into the British navy, the place of a midshipman in a vessel of war, then stationed on the coast of Virginia, was obtained for him. Every thing was in readiness for his departure, when the fears of a timid and affectionate mother prevailed upon him to abandon his proposed career on the ocean, and were the means of retaining him upon the land to be the future vindicator of his country's rights. Most of the advantages of education which he enjoyed, were derived from a private tutor, who instructed him in English literature and the general principles of science, as well as in morality and religion. After his disappointment with regard to entering the navy, he devoted much of his time to the study of the mathematics; and in the practice of his profession as a surveyor he had an opportunity of acquiring that information respecting the value of vacant lands which afterward greatly contributed to the increase of his private fortune.

At the age of nineteen, when the militia of Virginia were to be trained for actual service, young Washington was appointed an adjutant-general with the rank of major. It was for a very short time,



G. Washington

that he discharged the duties of this office. In the year 1753 the plan formed by France for connecting Canada with Louisiana by a line of posts, and thus of enclosing the British colonies, and of establishing her influence over the numerous tribes of Indians on the frontiers, began to be developed. In the prosecution of this design possession had been taken of a tract of land, then believed to be within the province of Virginia. Mr. Dinwiddie, the lieutenant-governor, being determined to remonstrate against the supposed encroachment and violation of the treaties between the two countries, despatched Major Washington through the wilderness to the Ohio to deliver a letter to the commanding officer of the French, and also to explore the country. This trust of danger and fatigue he executed with great ability. He left Williamsburg, October 31, 1753, the very day on which he received his commission, and at the frontier settlement of the English engaged guides to conduct him over the Alleghany mountains. After passing them, he pursued his route to the Monongahela, examining the country with a military eye, and taking the most judicious means for securing the friendship of the Indians. He selected the forks of the Monongahela and Alleghany river as a position which ought to be immediately possessed and fortified. At this place the French very soon erected Fort du Quesne, which fell into the hands of the English in 1758, and was called by them Fort Pitt. Pursuing his way up the Alleghany to French Creek, he found at a fort upon this stream the commanding officer, to whom he delivered the letter from Mr. Dinwiddie. On his return he encountered great difficulties and dangers. As the snow was deep and the horses weak from fatigue, he left his attendants at the mouth of French Creek, and set out on foot, with his papers and provisions in his pack, accompanied only by his pilot, Mr. Gist. At a place upon the Alleghany, called Murdering Town, they fell in with a hostile Indian, who was one of a party then lying in wait, and who fired upon them not ten steps distant. They took him into custody and kept him until nine o'clock, and then let him go. To avoid the pursuit, which they presumed would be commenced in the morning, they travelled all night. On reaching the Monongahela, they had a hard day's work to make a raft with a hatchet. In attempting to cross the river to reach a trader's house, they were enclosed by masses of ice. In order to stop the raft, Major Washington put down his setting pole; but the ice came with such force against it as to jerk him into the water. He saved himself by seizing one of the raft-logs. With difficulty they landed on an island, where they passed the night. The cold was so severe, that the pilot's hands and feet were frozen. The next day

they crossed the river upon the ice. Washington arrived at Williamsburg, January 16, 1754. His journal, which evinced the solidity of his judgment and his fortitude, was published.

As the French seemed disposed to remain upon the Ohio, it was determined to raise a regiment of three hundred men to maintain the claims of the British crown. The command was given to Mr. Fry, and Major Washington, who was appointed lieutenant-colonel, marched with two companies early in April, 1754, in advance of the other troops. A few miles west of the Great Meadows he surprised a French encampment in a dark, rainy night, and only one man escaped. Before the arrival of the two remaining companies, Mr. Fry died, and the command devolved on Colonel Washington. Being joined by two other companies of regular troops from South Carolina and New York, after erecting a small stockade at the Great Meadows, he proceeded toward Fort du Quesne, which had been built but a short time, with the intention of dislodging the French. He had marched only thirteen miles, to the westernmost foot of the Laurel hill, before he received information of the approach of the enemy with superior numbers, and was induced to return to his stockade. He began a ditch around it, and called it Fort Necessity; but the next day, July the third, he was attacked by fifteen hundred men. His own troops were only about four hundred in number. The action commenced at ten in the morning and lasted until dark. A part of the Americans fought within the fort, and a part in the ditch filled with mud and water. Colonel Washington was himself on the outside of the fort during the whole day. The enemy fought under cover of the trees and high grass. In the course of the night, articles of capitulation were agreed upon. The garrison were allowed to retain their arms and baggage, and to march unmolested to the inhabited parts of Virginia. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was supposed to be about a hundred, and that of the enemy about two hundred. In a few months afterward orders were received for settling the rank of the officers, and those who were commissioned by the king being directed to take rank of the provincial officers, Colonel Washington indignantly resigned his commission. He now retired to Mount Vernon, that estate by the death of his brother having devolved upon him. But in the spring of 1755 he accepted an invitation from General Braddock to enter his family as a volunteer aid-de-camp in his expedition to the Ohio. He proceeded with him to Wills's creek, afterward called Fort Cumberland, in April. After the troops had marched a few miles from this place, he was seized with a raging fever; but refusing to remain behind, he was conveyed in a covered

wagon. By his advice twelve hundred men were detached in order by a rapid movement to reach Fort du Quesne before an expected reinforcement should be received at that place. These disencumbered troops were commanded by Braddock himself, and Colonel Washington, though still extremely ill, insisted upon proceeding with them. After they arrived upon the Monongahela he advised the general to employ the ranging companies of Virginia to scour the woods and to prevent ambuscades; but his advice was not followed. On the ninth of July, when the army was within seven miles of Fort du Quesne, the enemy commenced a sudden and furious attack, being concealed by the wood and high grass. In a short time, Colonel Washington was the only aid, that was unwounded, and on him devolved the whole duty of carrying the orders of the commander-in-chief. He was cool and fearless. Though he had two horses killed under him, and four balls through his coat, he escaped unhurt, while every other officer on horseback was either killed or wounded. Doctor Craik, the physician, who attended him in his last sickness, was present in this battle, and says, "I expected every moment to see him fall. Nothing but the superintending care of Providence could have saved him from the fate of all around him." After an action of three hours the troops gave way in all directions, and Colonel Washington and two others brought off Braddock, who had been mortally wounded. He attempted to rally the retreating troops; but, as he says himself, it was like endeavouring "to stop the wild bears of the mountains." The conduct of the regular troops was most cowardly. The enemy were few in numbers and had no expectation of victory. In a sermon occasioned by this expedition, the Rev. Dr. Davies, of Hanover county, thus prophetically expressed himself:—"As a remarkable instance of patriotism, I may point out to the public that heroic youth, Colonel Washington, whom I cannot but hope Providence has hitherto preserved in so signal a manner for some important service to his country." For this purpose he was indeed preserved, and at the end of twenty years he began to render to his country more important services than the minister of Jesus could have anticipated. From 1755 to 1758 he commanded a regiment which was raised for the protection of the frontiers, and during this period he was incessantly occupied in efforts to shield the exposed settlements from the incursions of the savages. His exertions were in a great degree ineffectual in consequence of the errors and the pride of government, and of the impossibility of guarding with a few troops an extended territory from an enemy which was averse to open warfare. He in the most earnest manner recommended offensive measures as the only method

of giving complete protection to the scattered settlements. In the year 1758, to his great joy it was determined to undertake another expedition against Fort du Quesne, and he engaged in it with zeal. Early in July the troops were assembled at Fort Cumberland; and here, against all the remonstrances and arguments of Colonel Washington, General Forbes resolved to open a new road to the Ohio instead of taking the old route. Such was the predicted delay, occasioned by this measure, that in November it was resolved not to proceed further during that campaign. But intelligence of the weakness of the garrison induced an alteration of the plan of passing the winter in the wilderness. By slow marches the army was enabled on the twenty-fifth of November to reach Fort du Quesne, of which peaceable possession was taken, as the enemy on the preceding night, after setting it on fire, had abandoned it and proceeded down the Ohio. The works in this place were repaired, and its name was changed to that of Fort Pitt. The success of the expedition was to be attributed to the British fleet, which intercepted reinforcements destined for Canada, and to events in the Northern colonies. The great object which he had been anxious to effect being now accomplished, and his health being enfeebled, Colonel Washington resigned his commission as commander-in-chief of all the troops raised in Virginia.

Soon after his resignation he was married to the widow of Mr. Custis, a young lady, to whom he had been for some time strongly attached, and who to a large fortune and a fine person added those amiable accomplishments which fill with silent felicity the scenes of domestic life. His attention for several years was principally directed to the management of his estate, which had now become considerable. He had nine thousand acres under his own management. So great a part was cultivated, that in one year he raised seven thousand bushels of wheat, and ten thousand of Indian corn. His slaves and other persons employed by him amounted to near a thousand; and the woollen and linen cloth necessary for their use was chiefly manufactured on the estate. He was at this period a respectable member of the legislature of Virginia, in which he took a decided part in opposition to the principle of taxation asserted by the British Parliament. He also acted as a judge of a county court. In 1774 he was elected a member of the first Congress, and was placed on all those committees whose duty it was to make arrangements for defence. In the following year, after the battle of Lexington, when it was determined by Congress to resort to arms, Colonel Washington was unanimously elected commander-in-chief of the army of the united

colonies. All were satisfied as to his qualifications, and the delegates from New England were particularly pleased with his election, as it would tend to unite the Southern colonies cordially in the war. He accepted the appointment with diffidence, and expressed his intention of receiving no compensation for his services, and only a mere discharge of his expenses. He immediately repaired to Cambridge, in the neighbourhood of Boston, where he arrived on the second of July. He formed the army into three divisions, in order the most effectually to enclose the enemy, entrusting the division at Roxbury to General Ward, the division on Prospect and Winter hills to General Lee, and commanding himself the centre at Cambridge. Here he had to struggle with great difficulties, with the want of ammunition, clothing, and magazines, defect of arms and discipline, and the evils of short enlistments; but instead of yielding to despondence, he bent the whole force of his mind to overcome them. He soon made the alarming discovery, that there was only sufficient powder on hand to furnish the army with nine cartridges for each man. With the greatest caution to keep this fact a secret, the utmost exertions were employed to procure a supply. A vessel, which was despatched to Africa, obtained in exchange for New-England rum all the gunpowder in the British factories; and in the beginning of winter, Captain Manly, captured an ordnance brig, which furnished the American army with the precise articles of which it was in the greatest want. In September, General Washington despatched Arnold on an expedition against Quebec. In February, 1776, he proposed to a council of his officers to cross the ice and attack the enemy in Boston, but they unanimously disapproved of the daring measure. It was however soon resolved to take possession of the Heights of Dorchester. This was done without discovery on the night of the fourth of March, and on the seventeenth the enemy found it necessary to evacuate the town. The recovery of Boston induced Congress to pass a vote of thanks to General Washington and his brave army.

In the belief that the efforts of the British would be directed toward the Hudson, he hastened the army to New York, where he himself arrived on the 14th of April. He made every exertion to fortify the city, and attention was paid to the forts in the highlands. While he met the most embarrassing difficulties, a plan was formed to assist the enemy in seizing his person, and some of his own guards engaged in the conspiracy; but it was discovered, and some who were concerned in it were executed. In the beginning of July, General Howe landed his troops at Staten Island. His brother, Lord Howe, who commanded the fleet, soon arrived; and as both were com-

missioners for restoring peace to the colonies, the latter addressed a letter upon the subject to "George Washington, Esq.;" but the general refused to receive it, as it did not acknowledge the public character with which he was invested by Congress, in which character only he could have any intercourse with his lordship. Another letter was sent to "George Washington, &c. &c." This for the same reason was rejected. After the disastrous battle of Brooklyn on the 27th of August, in which Stirling and Sullivan were taken prisoners, and of which he was only a spectator, he withdrew the troops from Long Island, and in a few days he resolved to withdraw from New York. At Kipp's Bay, about three miles from the city, some works had been thrown up to oppose the enemy; but on their approach the American troops fled with precipitation. Washington rode toward the lines, and made every exertion to prevent the disgraceful flight. He drew his sword, and threatened to run the cowards through; he cocked and snapped his pistols; but it was all in vain. Such was the state of his mind at this moment, that he turned his horse toward the advancing enemy apparently with the intention of rushing upon death. His aids now seized the bridle of his horse and rescued him from destruction. New York was on the same day, September the 15th, evacuated. In October he retreated to the White Plains, where on the 28th a considerable action took place, in which the Americans were overpowered. After the loss of Forts Washington and Lee, he passed into New Jersey in November, and was pursued by a triumphant and numerous enemy. His army did not amount to three thousand, and it was daily diminishing; his men, as the winter commenced, were barefooted and almost naked, destitute of tents and of utensils with which to dress their scanty provisions; and every circumstance tended to fill the mind with despondence. But General Washington was undismayed and firm. He showed himself to his enfeebled army with a serene and unembarrassed countenance, and they were inspired with the resolution of their commander. On the 8th of December he was obliged to cross the Delaware; but he had the precaution to secure the boats for seventy miles upon the river. While the British were waiting for the ice to afford them a passage, as his own army had been re-enforced by several thousand men, he formed the resolution of carrying the cantonments of the enemy by surprise. On the night of the 25th of December he crossed the river nine miles above Trenton, in a storm of snow mingled with hail and rain, with about two thousand four hundred men. Two other detachments were unable to effect a passage. In the morning precisely at eight o'clock he surprised Trenton

and took a thousand Hessians prisoners, and a thousand stand of arms, and six field-pieces. Twenty of the enemy were killed. Of the Americans two privates were killed, and two frozen to death; and one officer and three or four privates were wounded. On the same day he recrossed the Delaware with the fruits of his enterprise; but in two or three days passed again into New Jersey, and concentrated his forces, amounting to five thousand, at Trenton. On the approach of a superior enemy under Cornwallis January 2, 1777, he drew up his men behind Assumpinck Creek. He expected an attack in the morning, which would probably result in a ruinous defeat. At this moment, when it was hazardous if not impracticable to return into Pennsylvania, he formed the resolution of getting into the rear of the enemy, and thus stop them in their progress toward Philadelphia. In the night he silently decamped, taking a circuitous route through Allentown to Princeton. A sudden change of the weather to severe cold rendered the roads favourable for his march. About sunrise his van met a British detachment on its way to join Cornwallis, and was defeated by it; but as he came up he exposed himself to every danger and gained a victory. With three hundred prisoners he then entered Princeton. During this march many of his soldiers were without shoes, and their feet left the marks of blood upon the frozen ground. This hardship and their want of repose induced him to lead his army to a place of security on the road to Morristown. Cornwallis in the morning broke up his camp, and alarmed for his stores at Brunswick urged the pursuit. Thus the military genius of the American commander, under the blessing of Divine Providence, rescued Philadelphia from the threatened danger, obliged the enemy, which had overspread New Jersey, to return to the neighbourhood of New York, and revived the desponding spirit of his country. Having accomplished these objects, he retired to Morristown, where he caused the whole army to be inoculated with the small-pox, and thus was freed from the apprehension of a calamity which might impede his operations during the next campaign.

On the last of May he removed his army to Middlebrook, about ten miles from Brunswick, where he fortified himself very strongly. An ineffectual attempt was made by Sir William Howe to draw him from his position by marching toward Philadelphia; but after Howe's return to New York, he moved toward the Hudson in order to defend the passes in the mountains, in the expectation that a junction with Burgoyne, who was then upon the lakes, would be attempted. After the British general sailed from New York and entered the Chesapeake in August, General Washington marched immediately for the

defence of Philadelphia. On the 11th of September he was defeated at Brandywine with the loss of nine hundred in killed and wounded. A few days afterward, as he was pursued, he turned upon the enemy, determined upon another engagement; but a heavy rain so damaged the arms and ammunition, that he was under the absolute necessity of again retreating. Philadelphia was entered by Cornwallis on the 26th of September. On the 4th of October the American commander made a well-planned attack upon the British camp at Germantown; but in consequence of the darkness of the morning, and the imperfect discipline of his troops, it terminated in the loss of twelve hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. In December he went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, on the west side of the Schuylkill, between twenty and thirty miles from Philadelphia. Here his army was in the greatest distress for want of provisions, and he was reduced to the necessity of sending out parties to seize what they could find. About the same time a combination, in which some members of Congress were engaged, was formed to remove the commander-in-chief and to appoint in his place Gates, whose successes of late had given him a high reputation. But the name of Washington was too dear to the great body of Americans to admit of such a change. Notwithstanding the discordant materials of which his army was composed, there was something in his character which enabled him to attach both his officers and soldiers so strongly to him, that no distress could weaken their affection, nor impair the veneration in which he was generally held. Without this attachment to him the army must have been dissolved. General Conway, who was concerned in this faction, being wounded in a duel with General Cadwalader, and thinking his wound mortal, wrote to General Washington, "You are, in my eyes, the great and good man." On the 1st of February, 1778, there were about four thousand men in camp unfit for duty for want of clothes. Of these scarcely a man had a pair of shoes. The hospitals also were filled with the sick. At this time the enemy, if they had marched out of their winter quarters, would easily have dispersed the American army. The apprehension of the approach of a French fleet inducing the British to concentrate their forces, when they evacuated Philadelphia on the 17th of June and marched toward New York, General Washington followed them. Contrary to the advice of a council he engaged in the battle of Monmouth on the 28th, the result of which made an impression favourable to the cause of America. He slept in his cloak on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack the next morning, but at midnight the British marched off in such silence as not to be discovered.

Their loss in killed was about three hundred, and that of the Americans sixty-nine. As the campaign now closed in the Middle States, the American army went into winter quarters in the neighbourhood of the highlands upon the Hudson. Thus after the vicissitudes of two years, both armies were brought back to the point from which they set out. During the year 1779, General Washington remained in the neighbourhood of New York. In January, 1780, in a winter memorable for its severity, his utmost exertions were necessary to save the army from dissolution. The soldiers in general submitted with heroic patience to the want of provisions and clothes. At one time they ate every kind of horse-food but hay. Their sufferings at length were so great, that in March two of the Connecticut regiments mutinied, but the mutiny was suppressed and the ringleaders secured. In September the treachery of Arnold was detected. In the winter of 1781, such were again the privations of the army, that a part of the Pennsylvania line revolted and marched home. Such however was still their patriotism, that they delivered up some British emissaries to General Wayne, who hanged them as spies. Committing the defence of the posts on the Hudson to General Heath, General Washington in August marched with Count Rochambeau for the Chesapeake to co-operate with the French fleet there. The siege of Yorktown commenced on the 28th of September, and on the 19th of October he reduced Cornwallis to the necessity of surrendering with upward of seven thousand men to the combined armies of America and France. The day after the capitulation, he ordered that those who were under arrest should be pardoned, and that divine service in acknowledgment of the interposition of Providence should be performed in all the brigades and divisions. This event filled America with joy, and was the means of terminating the war.

Few events of importance took place in 1782. In March, 1783, he exhibited his characteristic firmness and decision in opposing an attempt to produce a mutiny by anonymous letters. His address to his officers on the occasion displays in a remarkable degree his prudence and the correctness of his judgment. When he began to read it he found himself in some degree embarrassed by the imperfection of his sight. Taking out his spectacles, he said, "These eyes, my friends, have grown dim, and these locks white, in the service of my country; yet I have never doubted her justice." He only could have repressed the spirit which was breaking forth. On the nineteenth of April a cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in the American camp. In June he addressed a letter to the governors of the several States, congratulating them on the result of the contest

in the establishment of independence, and recommending an indissoluble union of the States under one federal head, a sacred regard to public justice, the adoption of a proper peace establishment, and the prevalence of a friendly disposition among the people of the several States. It was with keen distress, as well as with pride and admiration, that he saw his brave and veteran soldiers, who had suffered so much, and who had borne the heat and burden of the war, returning peaceably to their homes without a settlement of their accounts or a farthing of money in their pockets. On the twenty-fifth of November, New York was evacuated, and he entered it accompanied by Governor Clinton and many respectable citizens. On the fourth of December he took his farewell of his brave comrades in arms. At noon the principal officers of the army assembled at Frances' tavern, and their beloved commander soon entered the room. His emotions were too strong to be concealed. Filling a glass with wine, he turned to them and said, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you; I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honourable." Having drank, he added, "I cannot come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged to you if each of you will come and take me by the hand." General Knox, being nearest, turned to him. Incapable of utterance, General Washington grasped his hand, and embraced him. In the same affectionate manner he took his leave of each succeeding officer. In every eye was the tear of dignified sensibility, and not a word was articulated to interrupt the silence and the tenderness of the scene. Ye men, who delight in blood, slaves of ambition! when your work of carnage was finished, could ye thus part with your companions in crime? Leaving the room, General Washington passed through the corps of light infantry, and walked to Whitehall, where a barge waited to carry him to Powles' Hook. The whole company followed in mute procession with dejected countenances. When he entered the barge, he turned to them, and waiving his hat, bade them a silent adieu, receiving from them the same, last, affectionate compliment. On the twenty-third of December he resigned his commission to Congress, then assembled at Annapolis. He delivered a short address on the occasion, in which he said, "I consider it an indispensable duty to close this last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God; and those who have the superintendence of them, to his holy keeping." He then retired to Mount Vernon to enjoy again the pleasures of domestic life. Here

the expressions of the gratitude of his countrymen in affectionate addresses poured in upon him, and he received every testimony of respect and veneration.

In his retirement, however, he could not overlook the public interests. He was desirous of opening by water-carriage a communication between the Atlantic and the western portions of our country in order to prevent the diversion of trade down the Mississippi, and to Canada, from which he predicted consequences injurious to the Union. Through his influence two companies were formed for promoting inland communication. The legislature of Virginia presented him with three hundred shares in them, which he appropriated to public uses. In the year 1786 he was convinced, with other statesmen, of the necessity of substituting a more vigorous general government in the place of the impotent articles of confederation. Still he was aware of the danger of running from one extreme to another. He exclaims in a letter to Mr. Jay, "What astonishing changes a few years are capable of producing! I am told that even respectable characters speak of a monarchical form of government without horror. From thinking proceeds speaking; thence to acting is often but a single step. But how irrevocable, and tremendous! What a triumph for our enemies to verify their predictions! What a triumph for the advocates of despotism to find that we are incapable of governing ourselves, and that systems founded on the basis of equal liberty are ideal and fallacious!" In the following year he was persuaded to take a seat in the convention which formed the present constitution of the United States, and he presided in that body. In 1789 he was unanimously elected the first president of the United States. It was with great reluctance that he accepted this office. His feelings, as he said himself, were like those of a culprit going to the place of execution. But the voice of a whole continent, the presssing recommendation of his particular friends, and the apprehension that he should otherwise be considered as unwilling to hazard his reputation in executing a system which he had assisted in forming, determined him to accept the appointment. In April he left Mount Vernon to proceed to New York, and to enter on the duties of his high office. He every where received testimonies of respect and love. At Trenton the gentler sex rewarded him for his successful enterprise and the protection which he afforded them twelve years before. On the bridge over the creek which passes through the town, was erected a triumphal arch, ornamented with laurels and flowers, and supported by thirteen pillars, each en-

circled with wreaths of evergreen. On the front of the arch was inscribed in large gilt letters,

THE DEFENDER OF THE MOTHERS
WILL BE
THE PROTECTOR OF THE DAUGHTERS.

At this place he was met by a party of matrons, leading their daughters, who were dressed in white, and who with baskets of flowers in their hands sang with exquisite sweetness the following ode, written for the occasion :

Welcome, mighty chief, once more
Welcome to this grateful shore;
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow,
Aims at THEE the fatal blow.

Virgins fair and matrons grave,
Those thy conquering arm did save,
Build for thee triumphal bowers;
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers,
Strew your HERO's way with flowers.

At the last line the flowers were strewed before him. After receiving such proofs of affectionate attachment he arrived at New York, and was inaugurated first president of the United States on the thirtieth of April. In making the necessary arrangements of his household, he publicly announced that neither visits of business nor of ceremony would be expected on Sunday, as he wished to reserve that day sacredly to himself. At the close of his first term of four years, he prepared a valedictory address to the American people, anxious to return again to the scenes of domestic life; but the earnest entreaties of his friends and the peculiar situation of his country induced him to be a candidate for a second election. During his administration of eight years, the labour of establishing the different departments of a new government was accomplished; and he exhibited the greatest firmness, wisdom, and independence.

As the period for a new election of a president of the United States approached, and after plain indications that the public voice would be in his favour, and when he probably would be chosen for the third time unanimously, he determined irrevocably to withdraw to the shades of private life. He published in September, 1796, his farewell address to the people of the United States, which ought to be engraven upon the hearts of his countrymen. In the most earnest

and affectionate manner he called upon them to cherish an immovable attachment to the national Union, to watch for its preservation with jealous anxiety, to discountenance even the suggestion that it could in any event be abandoned, and indignantly to frown upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest. Overgrown military establishments he represented as particularly hostile to republican liberty. While he recommended the most implicit obedience to the acts of the established government, and reprobated all obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities; he wished also to guard against the spirit of innovation upon the principles of the constitution. Aware that the energy of the system might be enfeebled by alterations, he thought that no change should be made without an evident necessity, and that in so extensive a country as much vigour as is consistent with liberty is indispensable. On the other hand, he pointed out the danger of a real despotism by breaking down the partitions between the several departments of government, by destroying the reciprocal checks, and consolidating the different powers. Against the spirit of party, so peculiarly baneful in an elective government, he uttered his most solemn remonstrances, as well as against inveterate antipathies or passionate attachments in respect to foreign nations. While he thought that the jealousy of a free people ought to be constantly and impartially awake against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, he wished that good faith and justice should be observed toward all nations, and peace and harmony cultivated. In his opinion, honesty, no less in public than in private affairs, is always the best policy. Providence, he believed, had connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue. Other subjects to which he alluded were the importance of credit, of economy, of a reduction of the public debt, and of literary institutions; above all, he recommended religion and morality as indispensably necessary to political prosperity. "In vain," says he, "would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens." Bequeathing these counsels to his countrymen, he continued in office till the 4th of March, 1797, when he attended the inauguration of his successor, Mr. Adams, and with complacency saw him invested with the powers which had for so long a time been exercised by himself. He then retired to Mount Vernon, giving to the world an example most hu-

miliating to its emperors and kings; the example of a man voluntarily disrobing himself of the highest authority, and returning to private life with a character having upon it no stain of ambition, of covetousness, of profusion, of luxury, of oppression, or of injustice.

It was now that the soldier, the statesman, and the patriot hoped to repose himself after the toils of so many years. But he had not been long in retirement before the outrages of republican France induced our government to raise an army, of which in July, 1798, he was appointed commander-in-chief. Though he accepted the appointment, his services were not demanded, and he himself did not believe that an invasion would take place. Pacific overtures were soon made by the French Directory, but he did not live to see the restoration of peace. On Friday, December 13, 1799, while attending to some improvements upon his estate, he was exposed to a light rain, which wetted his neck and hair. Unapprehensive of danger he passed the afternoon in his usual manner; but at night he was seized with an inflammatory affection of the windpipe. The disease commenced with a violent ague, accompanied with some pain and a sense of stricture in the throat, a cough, and a difficult deglutition, which were soon succeeded by fever and a quick and laborious respiration. About twelve or fourteen ounces of blood were taken from him. In the morning his family physician, Dr. Craik, was sent for; but the utmost exertions of medical skill were applied in vain. The appointed time of his death was near. Believing from the commencement of his complaint that it would be mortal, a few hours before his departure, after repeated efforts to be understood, he succeeded in expressing a desire that he might be permitted to die without being disquieted by unavailing attempts to rescue him from his fate. After it became impossible to get any thing down his throat, he undressed himself and went to bed, there to die. To his friend and physician, who sat on his bed, and took his head in his lap, he said with difficulty, "Doctor, I am dying, and have been dying for a long time; but I am not afraid to die." Respiration became more and more contracted and imperfect until half-past eleven on Saturday night, when, retaining the full possession of his intellect, he expired without a struggle. Thus on the 14th of December, 1799, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, died the father of his country, "the man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." This event spread a gloom over the country, and the tears of America proclaimed the services and virtues of the hero and sage, and exhibited a people not insensible to his worth. The senate of the United States, in an address

to the president on this melancholy occasion, indulged their patriotic pride, while they did not transgress the bounds of truth in speaking of their Washington. "Ancient and modern names," said they, "are diminished before him. Greatness and guilt have too often been allied; but his fame is whiter than it is brilliant. The destroyers of nations stood abashed at the majesty of his virtues. It reproved the intemperance of their ambition, and darkened the splendour of victory. The scene is closed, and we are no longer anxious lest misfortune should sully his glory; he has travelled on to the end of his journey, and carried with him an increasing weight of honour; he has deposited it safely where misfortune cannot tarnish it, where malice cannot blast it."

General Washington was rather above the common stature; his frame was robust, and his constitution vigorous. His exterior created in the beholder the idea of strength united with manly gracefulness. His eyes were of a gray colour, and his complexion light. His manners were rather reserved than free. His person and whole deportment exhibited an unaffected and indescribable dignity, unmingled with haughtiness, of which all, who approached him, were sensible. The attachment of those who possessed his friendship, was ardent but always respectful. His temper was humane, benevolent and conciliatory; but there was a quickness in his sensibility to any thing apparently offensive, which experience had taught him to watch and correct. He made no pretensions to vivacity or wit. Judgment rather than genius constituted the most prominent feature of his character. As a military man he was brave, enterprising, and cautious. At the head of a multitude, whom it was sometimes impossible to reduce to proper discipline before the expiration of their time of service, and having to struggle almost continually with the want of supplies, he yet was able to contend with an adversary superior in numbers, well disciplined, and completely equipped, and was the means of saving his country. The measure of his caution has by some been represented as too abundant; but he sometimes formed a plan which his brave officers thought was too adventurous, and sometimes contrary to their advice he engaged in battle. If his name is not rendered illustrious by splendid achievements, it is not to be attributed to the want of military enterprize. He conducted the war with that consummate prudence and wisdom which the situation of his country and the state of his army demanded. He also possessed a firmness of resolution, which neither dangers nor difficulties could shake. In his civil administration he exhibited repeated proofs of that practical good sense, of that sound judgment,

which is the most valuable quality of the human mind. More than once he put his whole popularity to hazard in pursuing measures which were dictated by a sense of duty, and which he thought would promote the welfare of his country. In speculation he was a real republican, sincerely attached to the constitution of the United States, and to that system of equal political rights on which it is founded. Real liberty, he thought, was to be preserved only by preserving the authority of the laws and maintaining the energy of government. Of incorruptible integrity, his ends were always upright, and the means which he employed were always pure. He was a politician to whom wiles were absolutely unknown. When any measure of importance was proposed, he sought information, and was ready to hear, without prejudice, whatever could be said in relation to the subject; he suspended his judgment till it was necessary to decide; but after his decision had been thus deliberately made, it was seldom shaken, and he was as active and persevering in executing, as he had been cool in forming it. He possessed an innate and unassuming modesty, which adulation would have offended, which the plaudits of millions could not betray into indiscretion, and which was blended with a high sense of personal dignity, and a just consciousness of the respect which is due to station.

General Washington was blessed with abundant wealth, and he was not ignorant of the pleasure of employing it for generous purposes. His style of living was dignified, though he maintained the strictest economy. While he was in the army he wrote to the superintendent of his estate in the following terms:—"Let the hospitality of the house be kept up with regard to the poor. Let no one go hungry away. If any of this sort of people should be in want of corn, supply their necessities, provided it does not encourage them in idleness. I have no objection to your giving my money in charity, when you think it will be well bestowed; I mean, that it is my desire that it should be done. You are to consider that neither myself nor my wife are in the way to do these good offices." Thus was he beneficent, while at the same time he required an exact compliance with engagements. A pleasing proof of the generous spirit which governed him, is exhibited in his conduct toward the son of his friend, the Marquis de La Fayette. The marquis, after fighting in this country for American liberty, had returned to France; but in the convulsions of the French revolution he was exiled and imprisoned in Germany. General Washington gave evidence of sincere attachment to the unhappy nobleman, not only by exerting all his influence to procure his release from confinement, but by

extending his patronage to his son, who made his escape from France, and arrived with his tutor at Boston in 1795. As soon as he was informed of his arrival, he wrote to a friend, requesting him to visit the young gentleman and make him acquainted with the relations between this country and France, which would prevent the President of the United States from publicly espousing his interest, but to assure him of his protection and support. He also directed this friend to draw upon him for moneys to defray all the expenses which young La Fayette might incur. Toward his slaves, General Washington manifested the greatest care and kindness. Their servitude lay with weight upon his mind, and he directed in his will that they should be emancipated on the decease of his wife. There were insuperable difficulties in the way of their receiving freedom previously to this event. On the death of Mrs. Washington, May 22, 1802, the estate of General Washington, as he had no children, was divided according to his will among his and her relations. It amounted by his own estimate to more than five hundred thousand dollars.

The public addresses and other productions of General Washington's pen are written in a style of dignified simplicity. Some have seen so much excellence in his writings that they have been ready to transfer the honour to his secretaries; but nothing has appeared under his name, to which his own powers were inadequate.

It remains now to sketch the events of the eight years during which his wisdom and firmness were employed in the administration of the federal government. He was inaugurated at New York on the 30th of April, 1789. The oath of office was administered by Chancellor Livingston. The inaugural address was replied to by John Adams, as president of the senate, and by Frederick A. Muhlenberg, as speaker of the house of representatives.

Only ten States participated in the first presidential election. New York had neglected to adopt a law regulating the mode of election, and North Carolina and Rhode Island had rejected the constitution. North Carolina came into the Union in November, 1789, and Rhode Island adopted the constitution in May, 1790. The first Congress under the federal constitution met at New York, and its first session continued six months, during which period the machinery of government was set in motion and the construction of the provisions of the constitution were very ably discussed. Sixteen articles of amendments to the constitution were adopted by Congress, and ten of them were approved by the requisite number of States.

Washington displayed his usual judgment in the formation of his cabinet. Thomas Jefferson was appointed secretary of state; Alex-

ander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury; Henry Knox, secretary of war; Edmund Randolph, attorney-general, and Samuel Osgood, postmaster-general. John Jay was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court, and John Rutledge, James Wilson, John Blair, William Cushing, and Robert H. Harrison were chosen for the posts of associate judges.

After the adjournment of Congress, the president made a tour through New England, where he was received by the inhabitants with demonstrations of the most filial affection.

The second session of the first Congress began the 6th of January, 1790. At this session, Mr. Hamilton made his celebrated report with respect to the discharge of public debts contracted during the war of the Revolution. With regard to the foreign debt, he remarked that no difference of opinion existed; all agreed that provision should be made for its discharge according to the terms of the contract; but with respect to the domestic debt, opinions were entirely opposite—some advocating a discrimination between the present holders of public securities, and those to whom the debt was originally due. This subject opened a field of debate which shook the government to its foundation, and may fairly be said to be the origin of that division of sentiment and feeling which agitated so long and so violently the national councils, and which gave rise to the two great political parties, which, under the names of Federalists and Republicans, for thirty years arrayed one part of the American community against the other. The question was, shall the present holders of public securities, who have given but two or three shillings on the pound, receive the full value of what appears on the face of the obligations, or only the amount which they gave? After much debate, Mr. Madison proposed that the present holder of assignable paper should receive the highest price such paper had borne in market, and the original holder receive the residue. These propositions were finally rejected.

During the war, the States had frequently exerted their resources under their own authority, independent of Congress. Some had funded their debts; some had paid the interest, and some had done neither. All looked forward to the new Congress to assume their debts. Mr. Hamilton recommended this assumption of the State debts; and also, that provision should be made for paying the interest, by imposing taxes on certain articles of luxury, and on spirits distilled within the country. These recommendations again opened a torrent of debate in Congress. The Republican party, who existed chiefly in the Southern States, warmly opposed Mr. Hamilton. The

Federal party, existing principally in the Northern States, supported with great ability the plans of the secretary; but they were rejected by a majority of two.

Disputes had taken place with respect to the temporary as well as the permanent seat of government. It was understood that should it be fixed for ten years at Philadelphia, and afterward at a place to be selected on the Potomac, some of the members of the house of representatives, from the Potomac, would withdraw their opposition to Mr. Hamilton. This was accordingly done, and his plans were adopted.

The debt funded amounted to a little more than 75,000,000 dollars, upon a part of which an interest of three per cent. was paid, and on the remainder, six per cent.

Soon after the commencement of the third session of Congress a bill was introduced for laying the taxes which the secretary had proposed for the payment of the interest on the assumed debt of the States. That for laying duties on distilled spirits was urged on the ground that the inhabitants beyond the Alleghany mountains, where no other spirits were consumed, would not otherwise bear an equal burden with those on the seacoast, who consumed most of the articles on which an import duty was laid. The bill, after much debate, was carried. In 1790 a termination was put to the war which had for several years raged between the Creek Indians and the State of Georgia.

During the third session of Congress, an act was passed accepting the cession of the claims of North Carolina to a district west of that State, and a territorial government was established by Congres under the title of "The Territory of the United States south of the Ohio." This year the States of Pennsylvania and North Carolina established their constitutions. This year also Kentucky was erected into an independent State, receiving its name from its principal river.

A national bank was during this session recommended by the secretary. It met with a violent opposition from the Republican party. They considered all banking institutions as useless, the present bill defective, and the power of establishing a bank not granted to Congress. The supporters of the bill considered it as constitutional; and a national bank not only useful, but necessary for the operations of government. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Randolph opposed, while Mr. Hamilton sanctioned the bill. After deliberate investiga-

tion, the president was convinced of its constitutionality and utility, and gave it his signature.

In 1791, Vermont adopted the federal constitution, and applied to Congress to be admitted into the Union. New Hampshire and New York had both laid claim to the territory of this State, and both had made grants of land within its limits. In 1777 the inhabitants refusing to submit to either, declared themselves independent. At the request of her citizens, Vermont was this year admitted a member of the Union.

In 1791 the first census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, was completed. They amounted to 3,921,326. The revenue amounted to 4,771,000 dollars, the exports to 19,000,000, and the imports to about 20,000,000.

In October the second Congress commenced its first session. One of its first acts was that of apportioning the number of representatives according to the census. After much disagreement, a bill passed fixing the ratio at one for every 33,000.

While Congress was agitated by party strife and conflicting interests, an Indian war was opening in the north-western frontiers of the States. Pacific arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes in Ohio, but without effect. On their failure, General Harmer was sent with a force amounting to 1400 to reduce them to terms. He was successful in destroying their villages, and the produce of their fields; but in an engagement near Chillicothe he was defeated with considerable loss. Upon the failure of General Harmer, Major-General St. Clair was appointed to succeed him. He hastened to protect with his army the unfortunate inhabitants who were now left without defence to suffer all the midnight horrors of Indian warfare. With a force amounting to nearly 2000 men, St. Clair marched into the wilderness in the month of October. On the 3d of November he encamped within a few miles of the Miami villages, with his army, which was reduced by desertion and detachment to 1400. Here he intended to remain until reinforced. Notwithstanding the many melancholy examples of similar disasters in the armies of his country, St. Clair suffered himself to be surprised. The militia who were posted in front, were driven in great disorder upon the regulars. In vain did St. Clair attempt to rally the flying militia and repulse the savages. They appeared on all sides of the American army, and poured in such a deadly fire from the surrounding thickets, as strewed the field with the wounded, the dying and the dead. After a contest of three hours, General St. Clair, disabled by indisposition from the active duties of commander,

ordered a retreat, which was effected, and the remnant of his army saved from total ruin. The victorious Indians pursued closely about four miles, when they returned to share the spoils of the camp. General St. Clair retreated to Fort Jefferson, and afterward to Fort Washington. In this disastrous engagement, the numbers on each side were nearly equal. The loss of the Indians is not known; but that of the Americans was 630 killed and missing, and 260 were wounded—a slaughter almost unparalleled. The whole American camp and artillery fell into the hands of the enemy.

On receiving information of this disaster, Congress resolved to prosecute the war with increased vigour, to augment the army by enlistment, and to put the frontiers in a state of defence.

In pursuance of the resolutions of Congress, Washington endeavoured to put on foot an army sufficient for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians; but the defeats of Harmer and St. Clair produced such a dread of the Indians, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them. There was a violent clamour against the war; and the president deemed it advisable to make another effort at negotiation with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Colonel Harden and Major Freeman, who were both murdered by the savages.

Kentucky was this year admitted to the Union.

Soon after the opening of the next session of Congress, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment, but it did not prevail. In 1792 a Mint was established by Congress, and the division and value of the money to be used throughout the country regulated by statute. General Washington was again elected president, and in March, 1793, was inaugurated. Mr. Adams was also re-elected vice-president.

The president, intent on terminating the war with the Indians, had obtained the intervention of the Six Nations. Through their friendly agency, a treaty of peace had been negotiated with the Indians on the Wabash; and the Miamis had consented to a conference the ensuing spring.

About this time the French Revolution, which had commenced in 1789, began seriously to affect the politics of the United States. A new government was at first established in France, which had for its fundamental principle the universal equality of man. Hopes were entertained that France would now enjoy the blessings of a free government; but the leaders of the revolution were selfish and unprincipled men, and their sanguinary measures soon blasted these

hopes. Louis XVI. was executed, his family murdered or imprisoned, and all who were suspected as being hostile to their views, particularly the nobility, suffered decapitation by the guillotine.

The parties which had agitated the union were now raging with increased violence. The Democratic or Republican party beheld with pleasure the downfall of kings, and the dissemination of what they regarded as their own peculiar principles; and though they contemplated with horror the proceedings of those sanguinary leaders, Marat and Robespierre, they trusted that when the first commotions were assuaged, a republic of the most perfect kind would be established, and would remain as a proof to the world of the compatibility of good order with liberty. The Federalists, regarding their country as connected with Britain by identity of origin, and the various ties of commercial interest, by resemblance of institutions—by similarity of language, of literature, and of religion, shocked with the crimes of the French rulers, and alarmed at the system of disorganization which they had introduced, became more inveterate in their animosity to the Democratic or Republican party, whom they charged with fostering this spirit.

In April, 1793, information was received of the declaration of war by France against Great Britain and Holland. Washington was an American, and he did not choose to involve his country in the contests of Europe. He accordingly, with the unanimous advice of his cabinet, consisting of Messrs. Jefferson, Hamilton, Knox, and Randolph, issued a proclamation of neutrality. This measure contributed in a great degree to the prosperity of America. Its adoption was the more honourable to the president, as the general sympathy was in favour of the sister republic, against whom it was said Great Britain had commenced a war for the sole purpose of imposing upon her a monarchical form of government: but he preferred the welfare of his country to the popular applause.

M. Gerard, the French minister, who had been appointed by the king, was about this time recalled, and in April, M. Genet, who was appointed by the republic, arrived at Charleston, South Carolina. The flattering reception he met with induced him to believe that he could easily persuade the American people to embark in the cause of France, whatever might be the determination of government. This opinion of his was followed by the presumptuous procedure of fitting out privateers from the port of Charleston, to cruise against the vessels of the enemies of France—nations, however, at peace with the United States.

Notwithstanding these illegal assumptions of power, he was wel-

comed at Philadelphia by the most extravagant marks of joy. Mr. Hammond, the British minister, complained of these proceedings. The cabinet unanimously disapproved of them, and determined to enforce the laws against those citizens who had committed the offence. Genet accused the executive of acting in opposition to the wishes of the people, and even threatened an appeal from the government to the people. This threat turned many against him who had before been his advocates. When Congress met in December, the proclamation of neutrality was approved, as well as the conduct of the administration toward M. Genet. France, at the request of the president, annulled his powers, and he was succeeded by M. Fauchet.

On the 1st of January, 1794, Mr. Jefferson resigned his office of secretary of state, and was succeeded by Mr. Randolph. The office of attorney-general was filled by Mr. William Bradford.

An insurrection of the western counties of Pennsylvania took place about this time. Great dissatisfaction had arisen from the laws of Congress laying duties on distilled spirits. A sheriff was killed in the execution of his duty. A meeting of the malecontents was held at Pittsburg, correspondences were established among them, and an armed force, calculated to amount to 7000 men, was organized.

General Washington, after having vainly attempted persuasive measures, found himself compelled to resort to force. An army of 15,000 men was raised, and placed under the command of General Lee. This powerful force had the intended effect—inspiring such salutary terror that no opposition was attempted. Sixteen of the most active leaders were seized, tried, and convicted of treason, but afterward pardoned.

At this session of Congress an act was passed to raise a naval force, consisting of six frigates, for the purpose of protecting the American commerce against Algerine corsairs. Eleven merchant vessels and upward of one hundred citizens had been captured by these corsairs, and further preparations, it was understood, were making for a renewed attack upon the unprotected commerce of the United States.

A war with Great Britain was now apprehended. Since the peace of 1783, mutual complaints were made by the United States and Great Britain for violating the stipulations contained in the treaty. The former were accused of preventing the loyalists from regaining possession of their estates, and British subjects from recovering debts contracted before the commencement of hostilities. The Americans complained that certain military posts situated in the western wilderness, within the limits of the United States, were still retained, that

the Indians were incited to make incursions upon the frontier settlements, and that injurious commercial restrictions had been imposed. By these restrictions, American vessels trading to the ports of France might be seized by English cruisers, carried into England, and there condemned. A bill passed, laying an embargo for thirty days, one for erecting fortifications, one for raising a provincial army, and another for organizing the militia. To avert, however, if possible, the calamity of another war, Mr. Jay was sent to England for the purpose of negotiating with the British government.

The Indians still continuing hostile, General Wayne had been appointed to succeed General St. Clair. Wayne having in vain attempted to negotiate with the savages, marched against them, at the head of 3000 men, and a battle was fought near the Miami of the Lakes. The Indians were totally routed, a vast number killed, and their whole country laid waste. This decisive victory disposed them to peace, and had a salutary effect on all the tribes north-west of the Ohio, as well as upon the Six Nations.

January 1st, Mr. Hamilton resigned his office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott from Connecticut. At the close of this session, General Knox also resigned his office of secretary of war, and was succeeded by Timothy Pickering.

In the spring of 1795, Mr. Jay, having negotiated a treaty with Great Britain, returned to America. This treaty having been laid before the senate, was, after considerable debate, ratified by that body. This treaty provided that the posts which the British had retained should be given up to the Americans, and compensation made for illegal captures, and that the American government should pay to the British 600,000 pounds in trust for the subjects of Great Britain to whom American citizens were indebted. But it did not prohibit the right of searching merchant-vessels claimed by the British; and was thus an abandonment of the favourite principle of the Americans, that "free ships make free trade." Meantime, while the senate were debating the subject with closed doors, a member had given an incorrect copy of it to a printer. It was circulated with rapidity, and produced much irritation. The president received addresses from every part of the Union, praying him to withhold his signature; but Washington, believing the treaty to be the best which, under existing circumstances, could be obtained, signed it in defiance of popular clamour: at the next session of Congress an attempt was made by the Republican party to hinder the treaty from going into effect, by refusing to vote for the necessary supplies of money. After a long debate, in which several members, particularly Fisher

Ames, of Massachusetts, displayed much eloquence, and the parties generally much heat and irritation, the appropriation was carried by a majority of three, and the treaty went into effect.

A treaty was also made this season with Algiers, the commerce of the Mediterranean was opened, and the American captives were restored. A treaty was also concluded with the Indians in the West; thus securing the frontiers from savage invasion. A treaty with Spain soon after followed. Spain had endeavoured to cause the western boundary of the new republic to be fixed three hundred miles east of the Mississippi. She denied the inhabitants beyond the Alleghany mountains access to the ocean through that river, the mouth of which was in her province of Louisiana. To adjust these differences, Thomas Pinckney was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of Madrid. In October, a treaty was signed, allowing the claims of the republic as to the western boundary, securing to the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi to the ocean, and the privilege of landing and depositing cargoes at New Orleans.

In 1796, Tennessee was admitted to the Union.

The treaties of the last year met with no opposition in Congress. The conduct of France still continued to be a source of disquiet to the American republic. M. Fauchet, ardently attached to his nation, and believing himself supported by a numerous party in America, gradually assumed an authoritative manner. He accused the administration of partiality to their former foes, enmity to their friends, and cold indifference to the cause of liberty. Mr. Morris, who had been sent minister to France, failing to secure the confidence of those in power, was at their request recalled. Mr. Monroe succeeded him. This gentleman possessed the ardour for liberty and the rights of man common to the Republican party; and, with them, hoped that the French revolution would eventually lead to the establishment of a free government in the room of the ancient despotism of that country. He was received in the most flattering manner by the convention, who decreed that the flags of the two republics, entwined, should be suspended in the legislative hall as a symbol of their friendship and union.

M. Adet soon after succeeded M. Fauchet, and brought with him the colours of France, which, with much ceremony, were deposited with those archives of the United States which are at once the memorials of their freedom and independence, and an honourable testimony of the existing sympathies and affections of the sister republics.

Notwithstanding the professions of friendship between the governments, France still wished to involve America in her European wars;

but finding her maintaining a steady system of neutrality, she adopted measures highly injurious to American commerce. Her cruisers were allowed in certain cases to capture vessels of the United States, and while prosecuting a lawful trade, many hundreds were taken and confiscated.

Mr. Monroe, at this time, was suspected by the president of not asserting and vindicating the rights of the nation with proper energy. These suspicions were attributed by the Republican party to the false insinuations of his political opponents. The president, however, recalled him, and appointed Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina, in his stead.

As the period for a new election of president of the United States arrived, Washington announced his determination to retire to private life. He issued a "Farewell Address" to his countrymen, replete with sound political principles and the counsels of prudence, such as a father might communicate to his beloved children. He was gratified by the choice of Mr. Adams as his successor, and after remaining to grace the inaugural ceremonies with his presence, he retired to the shades of Mount Vernon, followed by the common exclamation of mankind—"Well done, thou good and faithful servant."

HENRY KNOX.

The statesmen who were members of the cabinet during Washington's two terms of administration were Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, Henry Knox, Edmund Randolph, Oliver Wolcott, Jun., Timothy Pickering, William Bradford, Charles Lee, and John McHenry. At that period the postmaster-general was not considered a member of the cabinet as at present. But for the sake of uniformity we will record their biographies. During Washington's administration that office was filled successively by Samuel Osgood, Timothy Pickering, and Joseph Habersham. The lives of Jefferson and Hamilton have already been given.

Henry Knox, the distinguished general and war minister, was born in Boston on the 25th of July, 1750. His parents were of Scottish descent. Before our Revolutionary war, which afforded an opportunity for the development of his patriotic feelings and military talents, he was engaged in a book store. By means of his early

education and this honourable employment he acquired a taste for literary pursuits, which he retained through life.

Young Knox gave early proofs of his attachment to the cause of freedom and his country. It will be recollected, that, in various parts of the State, volunteer companies were formed in 1774, with a view to awaken the martial spirit of the people, and as a sort of preparation for the contest which was apprehended. Knox was an officer in a military corps of this denomination, and was distinguished by his activity and discipline. There is evidence of his giving uncommon attention to military tactics at this period, especially to the branch of engineering and artillery, in which he afterward so greatly excelled.

It is also to be recorded in proof of his predominant love of country and its liberties, that he had before this time become connected with a very respectable family, which adhered to the measures of the British ministry, and had received great promises both of honour and profit, if he would follow the standard of his sovereign. Even at this time his talents were too great to be overlooked; and it was wished if possible, to prevent him from attaching himself to the cause of the provincials. He was one of those whose departure from Boston was interdicted by Governor Gage soon after the affair of Lexington. The object of Gage was probably not so much to keep these eminent characters as hostages, as to deprive the Americans of their talents and services. In June, however, he found means to make his way through the British lines to the American army at Cambridge. He was here received with joyful enthusiasm; for his knowledge of the military art and his zeal for the liberties of the country were admitted by all. The provincial Congress, then convened at Watertown, immediately sent for him, and intrusted solely to him the erection of such fortresses as might be necessary to prevent a sudden attack from the enemy in Boston.

The little army of militia collected in and about Cambridge in the spring of 1775, soon after the battle of Lexington, was without order and discipline. All was insubordination and confusion. General Washington did not arrive to take command of the troops until after this period. In this state of things, Knox declined any particular commission, though he readily directed his attention and exertions to the objects which Congress requested.

It was in the course of this season, and before he had formally undertaken the command of the artillery, that Knox volunteered his services to go to St. John's, in the province of Canada, and to bring thence to Cambridge all the heavy ordnance and military stores.

This hazardous enterprise he effected in a manner which astonished all who knew the difficulty of the service.

Soon after his return from this fortunate expedition, he took command of the whole corps of the artillery of our army, and retained it until the close of the war. To him the country was chiefly indebted for the organization of the artillery and ordnance department. He gave it both form and efficiency; and it was distinguished alike for its expertness of discipline and promptness of execution.

At the battle of Monmouth, in New Jersey, in June, 1778, General Knox exhibited new proofs of his bravery and skill. Under his personal and immediate direction, the artillery gave great effect to the success of that memorable day. It will be remembered that the British troops were much more numerous than ours, and that General Lee was charged with keeping back the battalion he commanded from the field of battle. The situation of our army was most critical. General Washington was personally engaged in rallying and directing the troops in the most dangerous positions. The affair terminated in favour of our gallant army, and Generals Knox and Wayne received the particular commendations of the commander-in-chief the following day, in the orders issued on the occasion. After mentioning the good conduct and bravery of General Wayne, and thanking the gallant officers and men who distinguished themselves, General Washington says, "he can with pleasure inform General Knox, and the officers of the artillery, that the enemy have done them the justice to acknowledge that no artillery could be better served than ours."

When General Greene was offered the arduous command of the Southern department, he replied to the commander-in-chief, "Knox is the man for this difficult undertaking; all obstacles vanish before him; his resources are infinite." "True," replied Washington, "and therefore I cannot part with him."

No officer in the army, it is believed, more largely shared in the affection and confidence of the illustrious Washington. In every action where he appeared, Knox was with him: at every council of war he bore a part. In truth, he possessed talents and qualities which could not fail to recommend him to a man of the discriminating mind of Washington. He was intelligent, brave, patriotic, humane, honourable. Washington soon became sensible of his merits, and bestowed on him his esteem, his friendship, and confidence.

On the resignation of Major-general Benjamin Lincoln, Knox was appointed secretary of the war department by Congress, during the period of the convention. And when the federal government

was organized in 1789, he was designated by President Washington for the same honourable and responsible office.

This office he held for about five years, enjoying the confidence of the president, and esteemed by all his colleagues in the administration of the federal government. Of his talents, his integrity, and his devotion to the interests and prosperity of his country, no one had ever any reason to doubt. In 1794 he retired from office to a private station, followed by the esteem and love of all who had been honoured with his acquaintance.

At this time he removed with his family to Thomaston, on St. George's river, in the district of Maine, two hundred miles north-east of Boston. He was possessed of extensive landed property in that part of the country, which had formerly belonged to General Waldo, the maternal grandfather of Mrs. Knox.

At the request of his fellow-citizens, though unsolicited on his part, he filled a seat at the council-board of Massachusetts, during several years of his residence at Thomaston; and the degree of doctor of laws was conferred on him by the president and trustees of Dartmouth College.

The amiable virtues of the citizen and the man were as conspicuous in the character of General Knox as the more brilliant and commanding talents of the hero and statesman. The afflicted and destitute were sure to share of his compassion and charity. "His heart was made of tenderness;" and he often disregarded his own wishes and convenience, in kind endeavours to promote the interest and happiness of his friends.

In his person, General Knox was above the common stature; of noble and commanding form, of manners elegant, conciliating, and dignified.

General Knox died at Thomaston, October 25, 1806, aged fifty-six years. His death was occasioned by swallowing the bone of a chicken.

EDMUND RANDOLPH.

Edmund Randolph, the first attorney-general of the United States, was the son of John Randolph, attorney-general of Virginia before the Revolution. He rose to eminence at the bar before the great struggle for independence began, and then became a fervent advocate

of the rights of the colonies. After having held several honourable stations in the State, Mr. Randolph was in 1779 elected to a seat in Congress, and he continued to be an active member of that body until 1782. In 1787 he was a member of the convention which framed the federal constitution; but his name does not appear among the signers of that instrument; and, in fact, he was one of its most formidable opponents in Virginia. In conjunction with the celebrated George Mason and the eloquent Patrick Henry, he advocated its rejection.

In 1788, Mr. Randolph was chosen governor of Virginia. In the next year he received the appointment of attorney-general of the United States, and, upon the resignation of Mr. Jefferson in 1794, he was selected to fill the responsible position of secretary of state. While in this position, however, he was charged with engaging in an intrigue with the French minister, by which he lost the confidence of the cabinet. He resigned in August, 1795, and returning to Virginia, resumed the practice of his profession. Mr. Randolph died on the 12th of September, 1813. He was a profound lawyer, but is said to have lacked prudence in his general political course.

OLIVER WOLCOTT, JUN.

OLIVER WOLCOTT, JUN., was the son of the Oliver Wolcott who signed the Declaration of Independence, and was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, in 1759. He was educated for the bar, was appointed by Washington comptroller of the treasury, and, on the retirement of Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, which office he filled during the remainder of Washington's and the whole of John Adams's administration. In 1800 he commenced business as a merchant in the city of New York. In 1815 he returned to his native town, and was was annually elected ten years in succession governor of Connecticut. He afterward returned to the city of New York, where he died, June 1, 1833, at the age of 74 years. He possessed great financial ability.

JOHN M'HENRY.

OF this cabinet officer we have no reliable material for biography.

TIMOTHY PICKERING.

Colonel Pickering, the distinguished and successful soldier and statesman, was born in Salem, Massachusetts, on the 17th of July, 1745, of a respectable family. He was graduated at Harvard College in 1763, and, after the usual course of professional studies, was admitted to the practice of the law. When the dissensions between the colonies and the mother country commenced, he soon became the champion and leader of the Whigs of the quarter where he lived. He was a member of all the committees of inspection and correspondence, and bore the entire burden of writing. The address which, in 1774, the inhabitants of Salem, in full town-meeting, voted to Governor Gage on the occasion of the Boston port-bill, proceeded from his pen. A part of it, disclaiming any wish, on the part of the inhabitants of Salem, to profit by the closing of the port of Boston, is quoted by Dr. Ramsay, in his History of the American Revolution.

In April, 1775, on receiving intelligence of the battle of Lexington, Colonel Pickering marched, with the regiment of which he was at the time commander, to Charlestown, but had not an opportunity of coming to action. Before the close of the same year, when the provisional government was organizing, he was appointed one of the judges of the court of common pleas for Essex, his native county, and sole judge of the maritime court (which had cognizance of all prize causes) for the middle district, comprehending Boston, with Salem and the other ports in Essex. These offices he held until he accepted an appointment in the army. In 1777 he was named adjutant-general by Washington, and joined the army then at Middlebrook, New Jersey. He continued with the commander-in-chief until the American forces went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, having been present at the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. He then proceeded to discharge the duties of a member of the continental board of war, to which he had been elected by Congress, then sitting at Yorktown, Pennsylvania. In this station he remained until he was appointed to succeed General Greene in the office of quarter-master general, which he retained during the residue of the war, and in which he contributed much to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. From 1790 to 1794, he was charged by President Washington with several negotiations with the Indian nations on our frontiers. In 1791 he was also made postmaster-general, and, in 1794, removed from that station to the secretaryship of war, on the resignation of

General Knox. In 1795 he was appointed secretary of state in the place of Mr. Randolph. From that office he was removed by President Adams, in May, 1800. At the end of the year 1801 he returned to Massachusetts. In 1803 the legislature of that State chose him a senator to Congress for the residue of the term of Dwight Forster, Esq., who had resigned, and, in 1805, re-elected him to the same station for the term of six years. After its expiration in 1811, he was chosen by the legislature a member of the executive council; and, during the war of 1812, he was appointed a member of the board of war for the defence of the State. In 1814, he was sent to Congress, and held his seat until March, 1817. He then finally retired to private life. His death took place January 29, 1829, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. In his manners, Colonel Pickering was plain and unassuming. In public life, he was distinguished for energy, ability, and disinterestedness; as a soldier, he was brave and patriotic; and his writings bear ample testimony to his talents and information. He was one of the leaders of the Federal party.

WILLIAM BRADFORD.

William Bradford was born in Philadelphia, September 14, 1755, and was graduated at Princeton College in 1772. He commenced the study of the law under Edward Shippen, Esq., late chief-justice of Pennsylvania, and prosecuted his studies with unwearied application. In 1776 he joined the standard of his country, and fought in defence of her rights. In 1779 he recommenced the study of the law, and in September following was admitted to the bar of the supreme court of Pennsylvania. In 1780 he was appointed attorney-general of the State.

In 1784 he married the daughter of Elias Boudinot, of New Jersey, with whom he lived in the exercise of every domestic virtue that adorns human nature. In 1791 he was appointed by Governor Mifflin judge of the supreme court of Pennsylvania. Here he had determined to spend a considerable part of his life; but on the promotion of Mr. Edmund Randolph to the office of secretary of state, as successor of Mr. Jefferson, he was urged by various public considerations to accept the office of attorney-general of the United States, now left vacant. He accordingly received the appointment January 28, 1794. He continued only a short time in this station, to which he was ele-

vated by Washington. He died August 23, 1795. He published, in 1793, an Inquiry how far the Punishment of Death is necessary in Pennsylvania, with notes and illustrations.

Mr. Bradford was a lawyer of great ability, and at the period of his death, his prospect of reaching the highest stations in the United States was considered equal to that of any of the contemporary statesman.

CHARLES LEE.

The Lee and the Livingston families were in glorious rivalry during the early days of the republic, in furnishing patriots and statesmen for the service of the country. It is difficult to decide to which belongs the palm. Besides those Lees whose names are familiar to most readers of American history, Virginia contributed to the national administration a statesman and lawyer of the name who stood high in the confidence of Washington. Charles Lee was a distinguished lawyer of Virginia at the time of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, and he advocated its acceptance in his native State. In December, 1795, he was appointed attorney-general of the United States, a post for which he was peculiarly fitted. It was by his advice that Mr. Monroe was recalled by Washington from the French mission. On the 12th of February, 1800, Mr. Lee was appointed commissioner to adjust the claims of Georgia; and on the 20th February, 1801, he was appointed chief judge of the fourth circuit. In all these positions Mr. Lee displayed ability, energy, and learning.

JOSEPH HABERSHAM.

Joseph Habersham was the son of a merchant, and was born in Savannah, in 1750. Having received a good education, he was about to engage in the peaceful pursuits of commerce when the Revolution occurred. Mr. Habersham was an ardent patriot, and having received the commission of lieutenant-colonel in the continental army, he engaged in a number of daring enterprises, which gave him a high military reputation. In 1785, Colonel Habersham was elected to Congress, where he served with distinction. In 1795, Washington appointed

him postmaster-general of the United States, to succeed Timothy Pickering. He held that office until 1800, when he resigned. He was then made president of the branch bank of the United States at Savannah, which position he held until his death, in November, 1815, at the age of 65 years. Colonel Habersham filled with eminent ability and patriotism the various offices to which he was called.

We have thus completed the notices of the several members of Washington's cabinet. It is hardly necessary to remind the reader that the vice-president during the period of this administration was the illustrious John Adams. We now proceed to give the life and administration of John Adams, and the lives of the members of his cabinet.

John Adams

Lives of the Presidents of the United States,

AND SKETCHES OF THEIR ADMINISTRATIONS,

TOGETHER WITH

Biographies of the Vice-Presidents and the Members of the Cabinets.

JOHN ADAMS.

The ancestors of John Adams were among the first Puritan settlers of New England. He was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, on the 19th of October, 1735. He was carefully educated, and in 1755 graduated at Harvard College. He then turned his attention to the study of the law. In 1758 he was admitted to the bar, and began the practice of his profession in the city of Boston. There his learning and eloquence soon gave him the pre-eminence among the younger members of the bar. But the cares of his profession did not wholly engross his mind. He was deeply interested in the disputes between the colonies and their unnatural mother, and evinced a bold, patriotic spirit in advocating the cause of his countrymen. In 1765, Mr. Adams published a bold and energetic dissertation in support of the rights of the colonies, in which he invoked the people to make themselves acquainted with their rights, and resist the encroachments of arbitrary power.

On the 5th of March, 1770, occurred the memorable "Boston Massacre." This event furnished Mr. Adams with an opportunity to display that peculiar courage in the discharge of what he believed to be his duty, for which he was ever remarkable. In company with Josiah Quincy, another distinguished patriot, he undertook the defence of the British officers and soldiers involved in the disaster, and by a splendid effort of eloquence and forensic skill, procured their acquittal.

In the same year, Mr. Adams was elected a representative in the Assembly of Massachusetts. In 1773 and 1774, he was chosen a counsellor by the general court, but rejected by the governors, who feared the influence of one who had taken a deep interest in the controversy between the colony and Great Britain, and was devoting his time and talents to the cause.

The great cause of emancipation was spreading and strengthening through the colonies; and the unjust and unwise arrogance and severity of the mother country, naturally hastened the catastrophe. The crisis came rapidly on. In June, 1774, a general Congress of delegates from all the colonies was agreed to; and Mr. Adams was one of those chosen by Massachusetts. This Congress assembled at Philadelphia in September, 1774. The high character of this assembly of patriots, for wisdom, solidity, firmness, and discretion, has been justly celebrated even by the greatest names of Europe; and, perhaps, was never surpassed. The eulogium of Lord Chatham upon it, is well known. It is is designated by the emphatic appellation of *the first Congress*. In such a body Mr. Adams became at once distinguished for talents, zeal, and usefulness; taking a leading part in every important measure. It was truly said of him, that, "in patriotic zeal and devotion to the public cause, he had no superior in that immortal senate. He sat in council with heroes and sages, and was himself the exciting spirit of the assembly."

From the first, John Adams had believed in the necessity of independence. He laboured under all circumstances to prepare the minds of his countrymen for the great event. When the declaration of independence was moved, he was its chief champion—and, in its advocacy, says Thomas Jefferson, "he came out with a power of thought and expression which moved us from our seats." He was the Colossus of that Congress.

As our contest with Great Britain assumed the character of a regular and protracted war, and lost that of a short-lived insurrection, to be immediately strangled by force or conciliated by compromise, it became indispensable to engage some powerful European ally to aid us in the strife. France was naturally looked to, not only for her ability to give us support, but from her known jealousy of England, and her readiness to cherish every effort to diminish her power. In November, 1777, Mr. Adams was appointed a commissioner to the court of France to solicit her patronage. This delicate and difficult office he performed to the entire satisfaction of Congress. On his return to America in 1779, he was elected a member, and, of course, an active and leading one, of the convention which framed the constitution of Massachusetts; a considerable part of which was drafted by him. In August of the same year, he was again sent to Europe as a commissioner to negotiate a general peace; and did not return to his country until her independence was consummated and secured by the treaty of 1783. In the mean time he was labouring with indefatigable zeal and fidelity with the powers of

Europe, to obtain their co-operation in the great cause of his country; making, in 1781, a favourable treaty with the Dutch provinces. In 1780 he received a vote of thanks from Congress for his services in Europe. In the following year he was associated with Franklin, Jefferson, and others, in a plenipotentiary commission for concluding treaties with several European powers. He assisted with great distinction, and his usual decision and sagacity, in making the treaty of 1783 with Great Britain, which restored us to peace, and terminated for ever her claims and power over this country.

When the United States were thus liberated from foreign shackles, and stood among the nations on the basis of her own strength and resources, Mr. Adams was the first minister appointed to London. He was there to stand in the presence of the monarch he had so deeply injured, and to meet the gaze of a court which well knew how much he had contributed to dismember their empire, and pluck the fairest jewel from the crown. But he enjoyed a distinction even more remarkable than this: he was the first minister that, may we not say, had ever appeared as the representative *of a republic*, in its full and just sense.

In the year 1787, Mr. Adams, at his own request, was permitted to return home; and a vote of thanks was passed for him in Congress, of a character beyond the ordinary language of compliment. In September, 1787, that which may well be styled THE GRAND CONVENTION of the United States, promulgated their scheme of government; which, in due time, was adopted by the people, and immediately put into operation. In 1789, Mr. Adams was elected the first vice-president under this constitution; and he was re-elected to the same office in 1793. On the retirement of General Washington from the presidency in 1797, Mr. Adams succeeded him in that dignified station.

Mr. Adams was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1797. His address was remarkable for its patriotic sentiments and simple vigour of style.

In the preceding year, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney had been appointed minister plenipotentiary to the French republic. The object of his mission was declared, in his letter of credence, to be "to maintain that good understanding, which, from the commencement of the alliance, had subsisted between the two nations; and to efface unfavourable impressions, banish suspicions, and restore that cordiality which was, at once, the evidence and pledge of a friendly union." On inspecting his letter of credence, the Directory announced to him their determination "not to receive another minister

plenipotentiary from the United States until after the redress of grievances demanded of the American government, which the French republic had a right to expect from it." The American minister was afterward obliged, by a written mandate, to quit the territories of the French republic. Besides other hostile indications, American vessels were captured wherever found; and, under the pretext of their wanting a document, with which the treaty of commerce had been uniformly understood to dispense, they were condemned as prizes.

The president, by proclamation, required Congress to meet on the 15th of June; when, in a firm and dignified speech, he stated the great and unprovoked outrages of the French government. Having mentioned a disposition indicated in the executive Directory to separate the people of America from their government, "such attempts," he added, "ought to be repelled with a decision which shall convince France and all the world that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign influence, and regardless of national honour, character, and interest.' He expressed, however, his wish for an accommodation, and his purpose of attempting it. "Retaining still the desire which has uniformly been manifested by the American government to preserve peace and friendship with all nations, and believing that neither the honour nor the interest of the United States absolutely forbade the repetition of advances for securing these desirable objects with France, he should," he said, "institute a fresh attempt at negotiation, and should not fail to promote and accelerate an accommodation on terms compatible with the rights, duties, interests, and honour of the nation." In the mean time, he earnestly recommended it to Congress to provide effectual measures of defence.

Three envoys extraordinary were now appointed, at the head of whom was General Pinckney. By their instructions, "Peace and reconciliation were to be pursued by all means compatible with the honour and the faith of the United States; but no national engagements were to be impaired, no innovations to be permitted upon those internal regulations for the preservation of peace, which had been deliberately and uprightly established; nor were the rights of the government to be surrendered.

A treaty of peace and friendship was concluded between the United States and the bey and subjects of Tripoli, in January.

On the 7th of July an act was passed to declare the treaties heretofore concluded with France, no longer obligatory on the United

States. The reasons assigned in the preamble, are, that those treaties had been repeatedly violated on the part of the French government; that the just claims of the United States for the reparation of those injuries had been refused, and their attempts to negotiate an amicable adjustment of all complaints between the two nations, repelled with indignity; and that, under authority of the French government, there was yet pursued against the United States a system of predatory violence, infracting the said treaties, and hostile to the rights of a free and independent nation.

In the spring of 1798, despatches were received from the American envoys in France, announcing the total failure of their mission. It was stated that money was demanded as an antecedent condition, not only of the reconciliation of America with France, but of any negotiation on the subject of differences; and that the envoys had given a decided negative to all such demands. Two of the envoys were then ordered to quit the territories of the republic; the third was permitted to remain and resume the discussions. The despatch excited great indignation throughout the United States, and the language was "Millions for defence, not a cent for tribute."

Congress adopted vigorous measures, one of which was, a regular army. A regiment of artillerists and engineers was added to the permanent establishment. The president was authorized to raise twelve additional regiments of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry, to serve during the continuance of the existing differences with the French republic, if not sooner discharged. He was authorized also to appoint officers for a provision army, and to receive and organize volunteer corps; the provisional army not to receive pay, unless called into actual service. An act was passed, more effectually to protect the commerce and coasts of the United States. These acts were passed in May. In June, Congress passed an act to authorize the defence of the merchant vessels of the United States against French depredations. In July, President Adams appointed George Washington lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief of the defensive army raising in the United States; and the appointment was accepted. In his letter of acceptance, General Washington observed, "Satisfied that you have sincerely wished and endeavoured to avert war, and exhausted to the last drop the cup of reconciliation, we can, with pure hearts, appeal to heaven for the justice of our cause, and may confidently trust the final result to that kind Providence who has heretofore, and so often, singularly favoured the people of the United States." Happily for this great and good patriot, and for his country, and in accordance with his own uniform belief, the

hostile attitude of France was followed by no invasion of the United States.

The French government having made a fresh proposal of negotiation, President Adams appointed Oliver Ellsworth, chief-justice of the United States, Patrick Henry, late governor of Virginia, and William Vans Murray, minister at the Hague, to be envoys to the French republic, to discuss and settle by treaty all controversies between the United States and France. Mr. Henry died on the 4th of June, before the time of embarkation; and Governor Davie, of North Carolina, was appointed in his room. The envoys were not to embark for Europe until the executive directory of France should give assurances to the United States that they should be cordially received, and that a minister of equal powers should be appointed to treat with them.

A treaty of peace and friendship between the United States and the kingdom of Tunis, negotiated by William Eaton and James L. Cathcart, was concluded on the 6th of March; and a treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and the King of Prussia, negotiated by John Quincy Adams, minister plenipotentiary at the court of Berlin, on the 11th of July.

Although the armies of France and the United States had not an opportunity for hostile collision, the superiority of the infant republic was established at sea. Commodore Truxtun, commander of the frigate Constellation, thirty-eight guns, captured the French frigate L'Insurgente, forty guns, after a sharp action, off St. Christopher's, in the West Indies, on the 9th of February, 1799; and on the 2d of February, 1800, the same vigilant and skilful commander compelled the French frigate La Vengeance, fifty guns, to strike her colours, but the vanquished vessel escaped in the night. During this short war, the American privateers inflicted an immense amount of damage upon the French commerce.

The American envoys found the government of France in the hands of Napoleon Bonaparte, who had not taken part in the transactions which had embroiled the two countries. With him negotiations were opened, which terminated in an amicable adjustment of all disputes. The provisional army was soon after disbanded by order of Congress.

On the 14th of December, 1799, the illustrious Washington, the model man and the hero citizen, departed from the scene of his earthly glory. The great people whom he had so faithfully served, mourned for him, as for a father; and the government, by a solemn

and august pageantry, showed its appreciation of the greatness of the loss.

During the year 1800, the seat of government, agreeably to a law passed by Congress in 1790, was transferred from Philadelphia to the City of Washington. A territory ten miles square, in which the permanent seat of government was located, had been ceded to the General Government by the States of Virginia and Maryland. It was situated on both sides of the Potomac, a few miles from Mount Vernon. Public buildings had been erected, and in November of this year, Congress for the first time held their session in that place.

Indiana was this year constituted a state; and Mississippi was erected into a territorial government.

The time had now arrived for electing a president. It was about this period that the feuds and animosities of the Federal and Republican parties were at their greatest height. When Mr. Adams was first made the opposing candidate to Mr. Jefferson, he was by no means obnoxious to the great body of the Republican party, who voted against him. They recognised in him a patriot of the Revolution, and they liked him well, although they liked Mr. Jefferson better. It was Mr. Hamilton, not Mr. Adams, who was the chief object of party aversion; and although a clamour was raised to serve party purposes, accusing Mr. Adams of being too much in favour of the British form of government; yet the real cause of dissatisfaction was, that he was supported by those who they were persuaded had monarchical views. After the lapse of four years, when Mr. Adams was again to be a candidate for the presidency, he was opposed with far more bitterness.

In some of his measures he had been unfortunate, and the vigilant spirit of party was awake to make the most of the real or supposed errors of the nominal head of their opponents. In the early part of his administration the acts by which the army and navy were strengthened, and 80,000 of the militia subjected to his order, were represented by the republicans as proofs, that however he might have been a friend to the constitution of his country, he now either wished to subvert it, or was led blindfold into the views of those who did. The republicans scrupled the policy of a war with France, and denied the necessity, even in the case of such a war, of a great land force against an enemy totally unassailable except by water. They believed that spirits were at work to produce this war, or to make the most of the prospect of a disturbance, in order to lull the people, while they raised an army which they intended as the instrument of subverting the republican, and establishing a monarchical government.

The president was stung by the clamours of the opposition, who imputed to him intentions which he never had. Attributing the evil to French emissaries; and moreover, ascribing to too much liberty the horrible excesses of the French revolution, he gave his signature to two acts, which were considered by the body of the people as dangerous to, if not subversive of, the constitutional liberty of America. One of these, called the alien law, authorized the president to order any alien whom he should judge dangerous to the peace and liberty of the country, to depart from the United States on pain of imprisonment. The other, called the sedition law, had for its avowed object to punish the abuse of speech and of the press; and imposed a heavy fine and imprisonment for years upon such as should "combine or conspire together to oppose any measure of the government;" upon such as should "write, print, utter, publish, &c. any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States or either house of the Congress of the United Sates, or the president," &c.

Under the sedition law several persons were actually imprisoned. The sympathies of the people were awakened in their behalf, and their indignation was aroused against those, by whose means they were confined. These were the principal causes why Mr. Adams was at this period unpopular, and that the Federal party, as appeared by the election, had become the minority.

Immediately preceding his retirement from office, Mr. Adams appointed in pursuance of a law made by Congress twelve new judges: these were called his midnight judiciary, from the alleged fact that they were appointed at twelve o'clock on the last night of his presidential authority.

At the general election, the republican electors, who had the majority, voted for Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, and those two statesmen had an equal number of votes. The choice then devolved upon the house of representatives. But in that body, it was found that repeated ballots resulted in giving the two candidates an equal number of votes, and it was not until the thirty-sixth ballot had been taken that Mr. Jefferson was found to have a majority of one State. He was accordingly declared to be elected president, and Aaron Burr vice-president.

Mr. Adams retired from office a very unpopular man. Even a portion of the Federal party, following the lead of General Hamilton, expressed their dissatisfaction with his course of action. But the great statesman of the Revolution had a consciousness of having acted according to the best dictates of his judgment, and he was con-

tent to leave his vindication to posterity; and in 1801 he retired to his family residence near Boston, devoting his life "to the culture of patriotism, charity, and benevolence," and declining the repeated calls of his fellow-citizens to high official stations. In 1820, however, he consented to serve as a member of the convention for revising the constitution of Massachusetts, and was elected president thereof by nearly an unanimous vote; but he declined the chair on account of his great age. He nevertheless took an interesting and useful part in the deliberations and debates of that body.

Mr. Adams enjoyed the privilege of seeing his son, John Quincy Adams, elected president of that republic for the independence and prosperity of which he had so triumphantly toiled. He died on the 4th of July, 1826, at the green old age of ninety-one. His last words were "Independence for ever!"

The character of this great man was once violently assailed by politicians. But the mists of prejudice have cleared away, and it now appears in its own grand, splendid proportions. Incorruptible as a patriot; all-powerful as an orator; sagacious as a diplomatist, and bold and decided as a statesman, John Adams must be ranked as one of the noblest men among the founders of the republic.

SAMUEL DEXTER.

During the administration of John Adams, the following distinguished men were members of the cabinet:—Secretary of state, Timothy Pickering; secretary of the treasury, Oliver Wolcott, Jun., and Samuel Dexter; secretary of war, John McHenry; secretary of the navy, George Cabot, and Benjamin Stoddart; attorney-general, Charles Lee. Joseph Habersham was post-master general. The lives of most of these statesmen have already been given.

Samuel Dexter was born in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1761. He was the son of a distinguished merchant of the same name, who was an ardent patriot during the Revolution, and one of the benefactors of Harvard College. The son was graduated at that institution, in 1781, with its first honours. He then engaged in the study of the law. He had not been long at the bar before he was elected to the State legislature, from which he was transferred to Congress, first to the house of representatives, and then to the senate. He was in Congress during a period of strong party excitement, and succeeded

in gaining much influence and honour by the force of his talents and character, proving himself an enlightened politician and superior orator. President Adams made him, successively, secretary of war and of the treasury. He discharged these offices in a masterly manner. Toward the end of Mr. Adams's administration, he was offered a foreign embassy, but declined it. When Mr. Jefferson became president, he resigned his public employments, and returned to the practice of the law. In 1815, President Madison requested him to accept an extraordinary mission to the court of Spain, but he declined the offer. For many years, he continued to display extraordinary powers in his profession, having no superior, and scarcely a rival before the supreme court at Washington, in which he appeared every winter, in cases of the highest importance. On his return from that capital, in the spring of 1816, he fell sick at Athens, in the State of New York, and died there May 4, aged fifty-five. Mr. Dexter was tall and well-formed, with strong features and a muscular frame. His eloquence was that of clear exposition, and cogent philosophical reasoning; his delivery in general simple, and his enunciation monotonous; but he often expressed himself with signal energy and beauty, and always gave evidence of uncommon power. He devoted much of his leisure to theological studies, and died a zealous Christian. In the party divisions of the American republic, he held, at first, the post of an acknowledged leader among the Federalists: eventually, however, he separated himself from his colleagues, on some questions of primary interest and magnitude. In the fine sketch of his life and character, drawn by Judge Story, it is truly said of him, "He considered the union of the States as the main security of their liberties; whatever might be his opinion of any measures, he never breathed a doubt to shake public or private confidence in the excellence of the constitution itself."

GEORGE CABOT.

George Cabot was one of the most distinguished statesmen of the period immediately subsequent to the Revolution. He was the first secretary of the navy, that department being created under Mr. Adams's administration. He was born in Salem, Massachusetts, in the year 1752. He spent the early part of his life in the employment of a shipmaster. But he did not neglect the improvement of

his mind, even amid the restlessness and danger of a seafaring career. Before he was twenty-six years of age, he was chosen to the provincial Congress, which met at Concord, with the visionary project of ordaining a *maximum* of prices, in order that commodities might be cheapened by constraining the owners to sell at reduced and fixed rates; and there he first displayed that intimate acquaintance with the true principles of political economy, for which he was thenceforward pre-eminent.

Before Adam Smith was known in the United States, and Say and the other continental writers had formed any correct notions on the subject, Mr. Cabot maintained the present doctrines, and strenuously contended for the entire liberty of domestic and international commerce. Mr. Cabot was a prominent member of the State convention assembled to deliberate on the adoption of the federal constitution, and, soon after that event took place, was elected a senator of the United States, an office which his sense of public duty caused him to accept, although against his inclinations. In that station, he enjoyed the unlimited confidence, not only of the august body of which he was a member, but also of Washington and Hamilton; and to his commercial knowledge and profound views of finance and political economy, the latter was greatly indebted in the formation of his financial system. With Fisher Ames, also, Mr. Cabot was long linked by ties of the most affectionate friendship. When, in the late war, the exigencies of the country seemed to him to require his co-operation, he presided over a body of delegates from New England, who, in a season of extreme solicitude, attempted to provide means for averting a dreadful storm of public calamity. Mr. Cabot died at Boston, April 18, 1823, in the seventy-second year of his age. He was the delight and veneration of all who knew him, and his talents seemed the most extraordinary, his virtues the most bright, to those who had the happiness to see him most familiarly. His mind was capacious and elevated. In public life he was pure and disinterested, all his exertions tending to one single object—public good; in private, he was endeared to his family and his friends by his kindness, urbanity, and benevolence. The study of political economy and the science of government was his favourite pursuit. His eloquence, which was oftener displayed in private than in public, was remarkable for its beauty and simplicity.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

At length we have reached the name of the illustrious author of the Declaration—Thomas Jefferson. He was born on the 2d of April, 1743, at the farm called Shadwell, adjoining Monticello, in the county of Albemarle, Virginia. His ancestors were among the most distinguished of the early settlers of his native State. His father, Peter Jefferson, was an energetic, self-educated man, who rose to reputation and influence by a course of steady exertions. At the age of five, Thomas was placed by his father at an English school, where he continued four years, at the expiration of which he was transferred to a Latin school, where he remained five years, under the tuition of Mr. Douglass, a clergyman from Scotland. With the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages, he acquired at the seme time a knowledge of French. When he was but fourteen years of age, his father died, (August 17, 1757.) Mrs. Jefferson was left a widow, with six daughters and two sons, of whom Thomas was the elder. Both sons inherited large estates, Thomas receiving for his portion the Shadwell lands, including Monticello.

At this period, the subject of this memoir was placed under the instruction of the Rev. Mr. Maury, to complete preparation for college. In the spring of 1760 he entered William and Mary College, and continued there the space of two years more. At the latter place it was his great good fortune, and what he considered as fixing the destinies of his life, that Dr. William Small, of Scotland, was then professor of mathematics in the institution; "a man," says his pupil, "profound in most of the useful branches of science, with a happy talent of communication, of correct and gentlemanly manners, and with an enlarged and liberal mind." An attachment was soon formed between these congenial spirits, and they became daily and inseparable companions. From the conversations of this learned

Th. Jefferson.

man and true friend, Jefferson confesses that he first imbibed his views of the expansion of science, and of the system of things in which we are placed.

Dr. Small returned to Europe in 1762, having first occupied the philosophical chair at the college, and filled up the measure of goodness to his young friend by procuring for him a reception as a student at law under the direction of the celebrated George Wythe, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and afterward chancellor of the State of Virginia. With this gentleman he was also united not merely by the ties of professional connection, but by a congeniality of feeling and similarity of views alike honourable to them both; the friendship formed in youth was cemented and strengthened by age, and when the venerable preceptor closed his life in 1806, he bequeathed his library and philosophical apparatus to a pupil and friend who had already proved himself worthy of his instruction and regard.

In 1767 he was introduced to the practice of the law at the bar of the general court of the colony, and at which he continued until the Revolution. His legal career was not only pursued with zeal, but attended with overflowing success. In the short period he devoted himself to it, he acquired an enviable reputation; and a monument of his professional labour and legal research still exists in a volume of reports of adjudged cases in the supreme courts of Virginia, compiled and digested amid the engagements of active occupation.

But his energy and talents were demanded by his fellow-citizens for public life, and his country would not permit him to remain in a private station or attend to ordinary affairs; their hopes and desires already pointed to him, and their interests directed his aim to higher objects and more extensive usefulness. As early as the year 1769 he was elected a member of the provincial legislature from the county where he resided, and continued a member of that body until it was closed by the Revolution. In consequence, he became associated with men who will always stand in bold relief among the first, the most ardent, and most determined champions of our rights.

Ever since the year 1763, a spirit of opposition to the British government had been gradually arising in the province of Virginia, and this spirit was rapidly increasing, owing to the arbitrary measures of the mother country, which seemed to be the result no less of madness than determined oppression. The attachment to England was great in all the colonies, and in Virginia it was more than usually strong; many of the principal families, according to a popular writer, were connected with it by the closest ties of consanguinity; the

young men of talent were sent thither to complete their education in its colleges; and by many, and those not the least patriotic, it was fondly looked to as their home. To sever so intimate a connection could not be an undertaking of ordinary facility; yet such was the rash course pursued by the British ministry, that very brief space was sufficient to dissolve in every breast that glowed with national feeling, those ties which had been formed by blood, by time, and by policy. It cannot be doubted that Mr. Jefferson was among the first to perceive and suggest the only course that could be adopted. The conviction of his mind and ardour of his feelings may, in some measure, be judged, from his recollections of the powerful efforts of the celebrated Patrick Henry, and of which he was a witness. "When the famous resolutions of 1765 against the stamp-act were proposed, I was yet a student of law in Williamsburg. I attended the debate, however, at the door of the lobby of the house of burgesses, and heard the splendid display of Mr. Henry's talents as a popular orator. They were great indeed; such as I never heard from any other man. He appeared to me to speak as Homer wrote." In Mr. Jefferson's opinion, Henry was the first who gave impetus to the ball of the Revolution in the province of Virginia.

In 1769, shortly after the election of Mr. Jefferson to the provincial legislature, these discontents arrived at their crisis. In May of that year, a meeting of the general assembly was called by the governor, Lord Botetourt. To that meeting was made known the joint resolutions and address of the British Lords and Commons of 1768–9, on the proceedings in Massachusetts. Counter resolutions, and an address to the king, by the house of burgesses, were agreed to with little opposition, and a spirit manifestly displayed itself of considering the cause of Massachusetts as a common one. The governor dissolved the general assembly in consequence of the sympathy which was thus exhibited by a majority of its members; but they met the next day in the public room of the Raleigh Tavern, formed themselves into a convention, drew up articles of association against the use of any merchandise from Great Britain, and signed and recommended them to the people. They then repaired to their respective counties; and were all re-elected except those few who had declined assenting to their proceedings.

On the 1st of January, 1772, Mr. Jefferson married the daughter of Mr. John Wayles of Virginia, an alliance by which he at once gained an accession of strength and credit, and received, in the intervals of public business, that domestic happiness he was so well fitted to partake and enjoy. Its duration, however, was but short;

in little more than ten years, death deprived him of his wife, and left him the sole guardian of two infant daughters; to whose education he devoted himself with a constancy and zeal which might, in some measure, compensate for the want of a mother's care and instruction. Mr. Wayles was an eminent lawyer of the province, and having by his great industry, punctuality, and practical readiness, acquired a handsome fortune, he died in May, 1773, leaving three daughters: the portion which came on that event to Mrs. Jefferson was about equal to the patrimony of her husband, and consequently doubled the ease of their circumstances.

After the dissolution of the Virginia legislature in 1769, nothing of particular excitement in the country occurred for a considerable length of time; the nation appeared to have fallen into an apathy or insensibility to their situation; although the duty on tea was not yet repealed, and the declaratory act of a right in the British Parliament to bind them by their laws in all cases, was still suspended over them. But they at length aroused from their stupor. A court of inquiry held in Rhode Island, in 1762, with a power to send persons to England to be tried for offences committed here, was thought to have aimed a deadly stab at the most sacred rights of the citizen, and as demanding the attention of the legislature of Virginia. The subject was taken up and considered at the spring session of 1773. On this occasion, Mr. Jefferson associated himself with several of the boldest and most active of his companions in the house, ("not thinking," as he says himself, "the old and leading members up to the point of forwardness and zeal which the times required,") and with them formed the system of committees of correspondence, in a private room, in the same Raleigh Tavern.

On the 12th of March, 1773, Mr. Jefferson was chosen a member of the first committee of correspondence established by the colonial legislatures. The year 1774 found Mr. Jefferson still actively engaged in his duties as a member of the legislature of Virginia. The passage by Parliament of the Boston port bill, by which that port was to be shut up on the 1st of June, 1774, was the next event which aroused the indignation and excited the sympathy of the house. It arrived while they were in session in the spring of 1774. It was at this crisis that Mr. Jefferson wrote, and the members, though not then adopting as resolutions, afterward published his "Summary view of the Rights of British America;" and in which he maintained what was then thought by many a bold position, but which he considered as the only orthodox and tenable one: that the relation between Great Britain and the colonies was exactly the same as that

of England and Scotland, after the accession of James, and until the union, and the same as her present relation with Hanover, having the same executive chief, but no other necessary political connection; and that our emigration from England to this county gave her no more rights over us than the emigration of the Danes and Saxons gave to the authorities of the mother country over England.

In these sentiments, however, bold as they were, his political associates joined with him; they considered those acts of oppression directed against the colonies of New England, acts in which all were concerned, and an attack on the liberties and immunities of every other province. They accordingly resolved that the 1st day of June, the day on which the Boston port bill was to go into operation, should be set apart by the members as a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer.

Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of the province, could not be otherwise than highly exasperated at such proceedings. Mr. Jefferson, who had boldly avowed himself the author of the obnoxious pamphlet, was threatened with a prosecution by him for high-treason; and the house of burgesses was immediately dissolved after their daring publication. Notwithstanding these measures, the members met in their private capacities, and mutually signed a spirited publication, setting forth the unjust conduct of the governor, who had left them this, their only method, to point out to their countrymen the measures they deemed the best calculated to secure their liberties from destruction by the arbitrary hand of power. They told them that they could no longer resist the conviction that a determined system had been formed to reduce the inhabitants of British America to slavery, by subjecting them to taxation without their consent, by closing the port of Boston, and raising a revenue on tea. They therefore strongly recommended a closer alliance with the sister colonies, the formation of committees of correspondence, and the annual meeting of a general Congress; and earnestly hoping that a persistence in these principles would not compel them to adopt measures of a more decisive character.

The pamphlet having found its way to England, it was taken up by the opposition, and, with a few interpolations by the celebrated Edmund Burke, passed through several editions. It procured for its author considerable reputation, and likewise the dangerous honour of having his name placed on a list of proscriptions in a bill of attainder, which was commenced in one of the houses of parliament, but was speedily suppressed. In the same bill the names of Hancock, the two Adamses, Peyton Randolph, and Patrick Henry, were inserted.

The year 1775 opened with a renewal of oppressive and insulting enactments by the British Parliament. The ministers of the crown brought forward the project of a law, purporting that when in any province or colony, the governor, council, assembly, or general court should propose to make provisions according to their respective conditions, circumstances, and faculties for contributing their proportion to the common defence; such proportion to be raised under the authorities of the general court or assembly in each province or colony, and disposable by Parliament; and should engage to make provision also for the support of the civil government, and the administration of justice in such province or colony; it would be proper, if such proposal should be approved by the king in his parliament, and for so long as such provision should be made accordingly to forbear, in respect of such province or colony, to impose any duties, taxes, or assessments, except only such as might be thought necessary for the regulation of commerce. On the 1st of June, 1775, this resolution was presented by Lord Dunmore, the governor, to the legislature of Virginia; and Mr. Jefferson was selected by the committee, to whom it was referred, to frame the reply. This was done with so much force of argument, enlarged patriotism, and sound political discretion, that it will ever be considered as a document of the highest order.

When this address had been passed, Mr. Jefferson immediately proceeded to Congress, which was then in session, and gave them the first notice they had of it. It was highly approved of by them. He had been elected on the 27th of March, 1775, one of the members to represent Virginia in the general Congress already assembled at Philadelphia, but had delayed his departure until now at the request of Mr. Randolph, who was fearful the draughting of the address alluded to would, in his absence, have fallen into feebler hands.

On the 21st of June, 1775, Mr. Jefferson appeared, and took his seat in the Continental Congress. In this new capacity he persevered in the decided tone which he had assumed, always maintaining that no accommodation should be made between the two countries, unless on the broadest and most liberal principles; and here, as elsewhere, he soon rendered himself conspicuous among the distinguished men of the day. On the 24th of the same month, a committee which had been appointed to prepare a declaration setting forth the causes and necessity of resorting to arms, brought in their report, (drawn up, as it was believed, by J. Rutledge,) which, not being approved of, the house recommitted it, and added Mr. Dickinson and Mr. Jefferson to the committee.

Mr. Jefferson prepared the draught of the declaration committed to them. It was drawn with singular ability, and exhibited his usual firmness and discretion; but it was considered as too decided by Mr. Dickinson. He still nourished the hope of a reconciliation with Great Britain, and was unwilling it should be lessened by what he considered as offensive statements. He was so honest a man, says Mr. Jefferson, and so able a one, that he was greatly indulged even by those who could not feel his scruples. He was therefore requested to take the paper and put it in a form he could approve. He did so, preparing an entire new statement, and preserving of the former only the last four paragraphs and half of the preceding one. The committee approved and reported it to Congress, who accepted it. Congress, continues Mr. Jefferson, gave a signal proof of their indulgence to Mr. Dickinson, and of their great desire not to go too fast for any respectable part of their body, in permitting him to draw their second petition to the king, according to his own ideas, and passing it with scarcely any amendment. The disgust against its humility was general.

On the 15th of May, 1775, the convention of Virginia instructed their delegates in Congress to propose to that body to declare the colonies independent of Great Britain, and appointed a committee to prepare a declaration of rights and a plan of government. Accordingly, the eloquent Richard Henry Lee made the desired proposition. After the great debate was concluded, and the majority appeared in favour of independence, a committee was appointed to draw up the declaration, consisting of Messrs. Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston.

It is a decisive proof of the consideration which he enjoyed in Congress, that in selecting five of their most distinguished members for the solemn purpose of composing this instrument, Jefferson, although only thirty-three years of age, and one of the youngest members of Congress, received the greatest number of votes, and of course presided over the committee. When they met, they delegated to Jefferson and John Adams the task of preparing the sketch of it—and then, after some mutual expressions from each, that the other should perform it, Jefferson yielded to the wishes of his elder colleague. He then presented it to the committee, by whom only a few slight and verbal alterations were made, at the suggestion of Franklin and Adams; but in its progress through Congress, it underwent several modifications. But the changes are comparatively so few, that, in all literary justice, the authorship of it must be ascribed to Jefferson.

The Declaration of Independence is among the noblest productions of the human intellect. It stands apart, alike the first example, and

the great model of its species—of that simple eloquence, worthy of conveying to the world and to posterity the deep thoughts and the stern purposes of a proud, yet suffering nation. It contains nothing new, for the grave spirits of that Congress were too intent on their great work to aspire after ambitious novelties. But it embodies the eternal truths which lie at the foundation of all free governments. It announces with singular boldness and self-possession their wrongs, and their determination to redress them. It sustains that purpose in a tone of such high, and manly, and generous enthusiasm—it breathes around an atmosphere of so clear and fresh an elevation, and then it concludes with such an heroic self-devotion, that it is impossible even at this distant day to hear it without a thrill to the soul.

In the September following, Mr. Jefferson was appointed a commissioner to France, in conjunction with Franklin and Deane; but in consequence of the state of his family, he declined accepting it, and having resigned his seat in Congress, was elected a member of the house of delegates of Virginia, which met in October, 1776. While there, he was appointed, with Wythe, Pendleton, Lee, and Mason, to prepare a code of laws for that State. Of these distinguished associates, one died in the progress of the work, and another withdrew from it, so that the burden and the glory of this service belong principally to Jefferson. After being occupied with it for more than two years, he presented to the legislature in June, 1779, the result of his labours in what is called the revised code. Its object was to simplify the laws, by reducing into a single code the whole body of the British statutes and of the common law, so far as they were applicable to Virginia, and the acts of the State legislature. This mere revision could have been accomplished by ordinary jurists, but that which stamps the work with the seal of his peculiar genius, was the adaptation of the laws of Virginia to its new political condition. It was evident that as no form of political constitution can be permanent unless sustained by a corresponding legislation, it was necessary to readjust the foundations of the commonwealth, and more especially to modify the laws with regard to slavery, to entails, to primogeniture, and to religion.

He had begun by obtaining the passage of a law prohibiting the further importation of slaves. His plan for their gradual emancipation was this:—All slaves born after the establishment of the law, were to be free; to continue with their parents until a certain age, then to be brought up to useful callings, at the public expense, until the age of eighteen for females, and twenty-one for males, when they were to be sent with implements of war and husbandry to some

colony, where they should be protected until able to defend themselves. In the same spirit, the constitution which he prepared in 1783, contained a provision against the introduction of slaves, and for the emancipation of all born after the year 1800.

His second measure was the abolition of entails. Governments which extend equal rights to all their citizens, can be best maintained by preventing any excessive inequality of condition among them, consistent with the full exercise of individual power over the fruits of industry. The law of entail, as transferred from England, had so seconded the natural tendency to build up large fortunes, that, to use the language of Jefferson, "by accumulating immense masses of property in single lines of families, it had divided our country into two distinct orders of nobles and plebeians." Against such tendencies, as inconsistent with the improved condition of the State, he succeeded in obtaining a law.

He resisted, with equal success, another part of the system, which assigned an unequal distribution of fortune among the members of the same family.

The easy naturalization of foreigners, the proportioning of punishment to crimes, and the establishment of common schools throughout the State, form other parts of his system. But there remained one great achievement, the security of religious freedom.

The Church of England, as established in Virginia, required a permanent contribution for its support from every citizen, and a law of the State prescribed that any person of either sex, unless Protestant dissenters exempted by act of Parliament, who omitted to attend the church service for one month, should be fined, and in default of payment, received corporeal punishment. The neighbourhood of Maryland appears to have excited no tenderness toward the religion of that State; for if any person, suspected to be a Catholic, refused to take certain oaths, he was subjected to the most degrading disqualifications. To undermine this fanaticism, Jefferson began by procuring a suspension of the salaries of the clergy for one year. Other years of similar suspense succeeded, till at length the public sentiment was prepared for his plan, which formed originally part of the revised code, but was not finally enacted until the year 1786, when, during his absence, the care of it devolved on the kindred mind of him who was equally worthy to be his friend in all stations, and his successor in the highest, James Madison.

On completing the revised code, he was elected, in the year 1779, governor of Virginia, which place he held for two years. About that period, M. Marbois, of the French legation, being desirous of

collecting information with regard to the United States, prepared certain queries, a copy of which he addressed to a member of Congress from each of the States. The member from Virginia requested Jefferson to answer these inquiries. This he accordingly did, in the year 1781, and enlarged his observations in the year 1782, when a few copies were printed for the use of his friends; but it was not until the year 1787, that the work appeared in its present form, under the unassuming title of "Notes on Virginia." A translation into French, by the Abbé Morellet, was printed at Paris in the same year. It professes to be an answer to M. Marbois's queries, in the order in which they were presented, and to give the outlines of the history, geography, and general statistics of Virginia. But it is not so much in the details of the work, though these are perfectly well digested, as in the free and manly sense, the fine philosophical temper, and the liberal feeling which pervade it, that consists its principal attraction. Constitutions, laws, the nature and consequences of domestic slavery, are all discussed with an impartiality which displays the independent spirit of the writer. Here, too, he overthrew the idle fancy of Buffon as to the inferiority of the animal creation of the new world.

On leaving the government of Virginia, he was appointed a minister plenipotentiary, to unite with those already in Europe, in negotiating a peace between the United States and England; but at the moment of embarking, intelligence arrived of the signature of that treaty. He returned to Congress in 1783, and in the following year, was sent to Europe to join Franklin and John Adams, as plenipotentiaries, to arrange with the several powers of Europe their future commercial relations with the United States. They framed a treaty with Prussia only, after which Jefferson visited England for a few weeks, in order to assist in an effort, which proved abortive, to make a treaty with that power. On the return of Franklin, he was appointed his successor as minister plenipotentiary to France, where he remained for several years. During his residence in Paris, his public duties were chiefly confined to the details of the commercial intercourse between the two countries, and the diligent performance of these left him leisure for the cultivation of every species of liberal knowledge.

He returned from France in November, 1789, on a visit to his family, but instead of resuming his place, he yielded to the request of General Washington, and in April, 1790, accepted the office of secretary of state under the new constitution. Here he soon evinced, that in enlarging his acquirements, he had lost none of his practical sagacity as a statesman. His department was in fact to be created,

our diplomatic relations under the new government to be established, and the general arrangement of our intercourse with foreign nations to be organized. Then arose the difficulties growing out of the French revolution, and it was his peculiar duty to sustain the rights of the country against the pretensions of England and France, and to vindicate the neutrality of our government. The interest of these discussions has passed with the occasion, as more recent facts and longer experience have in some degree superseded them; but there are three of his public labours at that period, entitled to particular remembrance. The first is his report on foreign commerce. The second is his correspondence with the British minister on the mutual complaints of the two countries—which combines with great force of reasoning and perspicuity of style, a tone of dignified courtesy rarely seen in similar papers. The third is his report on weights and measures, which presents, in a clear and condensed form, all the knowledge of that day on this interesting and intricate question.

He withdrew from this station on the 1st of January, 1794, and resumed his tranquil pursuits at home. These, however, he was not long suffered to enjoy, for in the year 1797, he was elected vice-president of the United States. While in this office, not content to remain inactive in any station, he composed the system of rules known by the name of "Jefferson's Manual;" a digest of the parliamentary practice of England, with such modifications as had been adopted by the senate, or are suggested by the difference between the British and American legislatures.

About this time he was elected president of the American Philosophical Society, having been previously a member of the French Institute, the most learned body perhaps in Europe—distinctions which were richly earned by the variety of his acquirements in science.

His services were now to receive their highest reward by his advancement to the presidency of the United States, on the 4th of March, 1801, and his re-election in 1805.

Mr. Jefferson was inaugurated President of the United States on the 4th of March, 1801. At the same time, Aaron Burr became vice-president. Many changes were expected to be made by the new president, both in the offices under the administration, and in the practices of the government; and Mr. Jefferson displayed his originality as a statesmen in numerous particulars. On his accession to office, he departed from the example of his predecessors, and instead of a speech delivered to the two houses of Congress in person, he sent to them a written message, which was first read by the senate, and then transmitted to the house of representatives. This prac-

tice has been sanctioned and followed by his successors. The levees at the presidential mansion were abolished as anti-republican. The principal offices were transferred to the Republicans.

A bill was passed by Congress, in accordance with the recommendation of the president, reorganizing the judiciary department, by means of which the twelve judges appointed during the last days of Mr. Adams's administration, were deprived of their offices. Another bill was passed enlarging the rights of naturalization. A second census of the United States was now completed, giving a population of 5,319,762, an increase of 1,400,000 in ten years.

During this year, Congress declared war against Tripoli.

In 1802, Ohio was admitted as an independent State into the Union. The territory of this State was originally claimed by Virginia and Connecticut, and was ceded by them to the United States, at different times after the year 1781. From this extensive and fertile tract of country slavery was entirely excluded.

In 1802, the port of New Orleans was closed against the United States. The king of Spain having ceded Louisiana to the French, the Spanish intendant was commanded to make the arrangements to deliver the country to the French commissioners. In consequence of this order, the intendant announced that the citizens of the United States should no longer be permitted to deposit their merchandises and effects in the port of New Orleans. By this prohibition, the Western States were in danger of suffering the ruin of their commerce, and great agitation was excited in the public mind. In Congress, a proposition was made to take the whole country by force; but reposing just confidence in the good faith of the government whose officers had committed the wrong, that body caused friendly and reasonable representations of the grievances sustained, to be made to the court of Spain, and the right of deposit was restored.

Aware of the danger to which the United States would be perpetually exposed, while Louisiana remained in the possession of a foreign power, propositions had been made for procuring it by purchase. This was a subject of much discussion and feeling. But by a treaty concluded at Paris in 1803, Louisiana, comprising all that immense region of country extending from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean, was acquired by the United States, as well as the free and exclusive navigation of the river. The sum of 15,000,000 dollars was the price of these newly acquired rights. The minority were opposed to a ratification of the treaty, contending that the sum was exorbitantly large, and that the navigation of the river could have been secured without such heavy pecuniary sacrifices. Mr. Jefferson

and the majority of Congress viewed the subject in a very different light. They considered that, compared with the importance of the object attained, the purchase-money was trifling; that the prosperity of all the Western States was dependent on the free and uninterrupted navigation of the waters of the Mississippi, and a safe depôt at New Orleans; that by this treaty the Western frontier would be protected and preserved from collisions with a foreign power, and that such was the happy organization of the American government, that it was fully adequate for the security and protection of its territories, however extensive they might be.

In the mean time, the semi-barbarous nations which inhabit the southern shores of the Mediterranean had commenced depredations on the American commerce. Tripoli, in particular, had intimated to the government that the only method of securing their commerce, was the payment of tribute. This led to a war between that power and the United States.

In prosecution of this war, the United States had, during the year 1801, sent out Commodore Dale, with a squadron of two frigates and a sloop of war. By blockading the harbour of Tripoli, he prevented the piratical cruisers from leaving it, and thus afforded protection to the American commerce.

Early in the year 1803, Congress, bent on more efficient operations against their barbarian enemy, sent out Commodore Preble, with a squadron of seven sail. In October, one of his ships, the frigate Philadelphia, Captain Bainbridge, was sent into the harbour of Tripoli to reconnoitre; and while in pursuit of a small vessel, he unfortunately proceeded so far that the Philadelphia was grounded, and fell into the hands of the enemy. The officers were considered as prisoners, and the crew treated as slaves.

As soon as the news of the capture of the Philadelphia reached the squadron, Stephen Decatur, who held a lieutenancy under Commodore Preble, conceived the design of recapturing or destroying it. Having obtained the consent of the commodore, he armed a small ketch, the Intrepid, and sailed from Syracuse, February, 1804, with seventy men. He entered the harbour of Tripoli undiscovered, and advancing boldly, took a station along side of the frigate, which was moored within gun-shot of the bashaw's castle and of the principal battery. Two of the enemy's cruisers lay within two cables' length, and all the guns of the frigate were mounted and loaded. Decatur sprang on board, and his intrepid crew rushed, sword in hand, upon the astonished and terrified Tripolitans; killed and drove them into the sea, and were soon masters of the frigate. The situation of De-

catur and his crew became perilous from the artillery of the battery, which now began to be poured in upon them. The corsairs in the harbour were approaching, and they had no time to lose in making their escape. They set fire to the Philadelphia, left her, and were soon out of the reach of their pursuers, having accomplished this daring enterprise without the loss of a single man.

In the month of August, Commodore Preble went three times into the harbour of Tripoli, and opened the broadsides of his fleet upon the shipping and the batteries of the city. Although the Americans destroyed some of the Tripolitan shipping, yet they failed of making any material impression upon the fortifications. Meantime, the barbarians treated the American prisoners with every degree of indignity and cruelty. Captain Bainbridge, who, with his crew, had remained in captivity since the capture of the Philadelphia, vainly endeavoured to obtain some mitigation of their sufferings. Their country deeply commiserated their distresses, and Congress was ready to listen to any proposition which afforded a reasonable prospect of their relief.

In 1803, Captain William Eaton, on his return from Tunis, where he had been consul, represented to the government, that his joint operation with an elder and expelled brother of the reigning bashaw of Tripoli might be useful. Permission was given him to undertake the enterprise, and such supplies granted as could be afforded, and the co-operation of the fleet recommended. In 1804, Eaton was appointed navy-agent of the United States for the Barbary Powers. After reaching Malta, he left the American fleet, and proceeded to Cairo and Alexandria, where he formed a convention with Hamet, who hoped, by attacking the usurper in his dominions, to regain his throne. For this purpose, an army was to be raised in Egypt, where Hamet had been kindly received and presented with a military command by the Mameluke Bey. Early in 1805, Eaton was appointed general of Hamet's forces. From Egypt, he marched with a few hundred troops, principally Arabs, across a desert 1000 miles in extent, to Derne, a Tripolitan city on the Mediterranean. In this harbour he found a part of the American fleet, which was destined to assist him. He learned, also, that the usurper, with a considerable force, was within a few days' march of the city. The next morning, he summoned the governor of Derne to surrender, who returned for answer, "My head or yours." He then commenced an assault upon the city, and, after a contest of two hours and a half, took possession of it. General Eaton was wounded, and his army suffered severely, but immediate exertions were, notwithstanding, made to fortify the city. On the 8th of May, it was attacked by the

Tripolitan army. Although the assailants were ten times more numerous than Eaton's band, yet, after persisting four hours in the attempt, they were compelled to retire. On the 10th of June, another battle was fought, in which Eaton was again victorious. The next day, the American frigate Constitution arrived in the harbour, and the Tripolitans fled precipitately to the desert. While the impression resulting from the bravery displayed at Derne, operated at Tripoli, and an attack upon that city was daily expected from the United States' squadron, Colonel Lear, the consul at Tripoli, thought it the best moment to listen to the terms of peace offered by the bashaw. He did so, and it was stipulated that a mutual delivery of prisoners should take place; among whom were Captain Bainbridge, with the officers and crew of the Philadelphia; and, as the bashaw had a balance of more than two hundred prisoners in his favour, he was to receive sixty thousand dollars for them. It was also understood, that all support from Hamet was to be withdrawn, and hostilities were to cease. It was, however, stipulated, that on Hamet's retiring from the territory, his wife and children, then in the power of the reigning bashaw, should be given up to him. Thus ended the war in the Mediterranean.

In July, 1804, occurred the death of General Alexander Hamilton. He died in a duel fought with Aaron Burr, vice-president of the United States. Colonel Burr had addressed a letter to General Hamilton, requiring his denial or acknowledgment of certain offensive expressions contained in a public journal. Hamilton declining to give either, Colonel Burr sent him a challenge. They met, and Hamilton fell at the first fire. His death caused a deep sensation throughout the Union. The city of New York paid extraordinary honours to his remains.

In 1804, the general elections occurred. Mr. Jefferson's popularity had greatly increased, and he was now re-chosen to the presidency by a large majority. The popularity of Burr had, on the other hand, dwindled away since the death of Hamilton; and George Clinton, of New York, the candidate of the Jefferson party, was elected vice-president.

Mr. Jefferson, on entering upon the discharge of the duties of the second term of his administration, although a decided majority in both houses of Congress were friendly to the principles of government by which he was actuated, perceived himself to be placed in a more critical position than at any former period of his public life. The manner in which European wars were conducted created apprehensions in the minds of the American citizens that their rights and

liberties would not only be endangered, but sacrificed. The wise policy of America had been eminently conspicuous in maintaining a steady system of neutrality, during the whole of those wars which broke out in consequence of the French revolution. Her neutrality enabled her to profit by the colonial commerce of France and Spain, as also the whole branch of European trade, which, in consequence of the general war, could not be transported with native ships.

On two subjects, Britain and America were at issue. One was respecting what the former power denominated "the right of search;" by which, on various pretences, she assumed and exercised an authority to search the vessels of other nations. Another subject in dispute was that of expatriation. England maintained that a man once a subject was always a subject; and that no act of his could change his allegiance to the government under which he was born.

This difference in principles on the subjects of the right of search, and that of expatriation, produced the difficulties between the two nations on the subject of the impressment of American seamen. Officers of British ships, in the exercise of the pretended right of search, entered American vessels, and impressed from thence certain seamen, whom they claimed as British subjects, because they were born in Great Britain; while the same men, having become naturalized in America, were regarded by that power as her citizens. The practice of impressment thus begun, did not end here, but proceeded to extremes that the Americans considered unjustifiable on any principles.

America, thus situated, was meditating measures for the defence of her commerce, when she received from both the belligerents fresh cause of provocation. Great Britain, under the administration of Fox, issued a proclamation, May, 1806, blockading the coast of the continent, from Elbe to Brest. The French government, exasperated at this measure, retaliated by the decree issued at Berlin, November 21st, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade. Thus each nation declared in effect that no neutral power should trade with the other.

In 1807 the public attention was again directed to Colonel Burr. He had lost the confidence of the Republican party, by his supposed intrigue against Mr. Jefferson for the office of president, and excited the indignation of the whole Federal party by his encounter with Hamilton. Thus situated, he had retired a private citizen into the Western States. It was at length understood that he was at the head of a great number of individuals, who were arming and organizing themselves, and purchasing and building boats on the Ohio.

Their ostensible object was peaceful and agricultural. It was to form a settlement on the banks of the Washita, in Louisiana. Their boats, it was said, were calculated to accommodate families who were removing to their settlements. But the vigilant eye of government was upon their leader; and, as the nature and designs of his movements were suspected, he was closely scrutinized; prosecutions were instituted against him in Tennessee, in Kentucky, and in the Mississippi Territory, from which, as proof of guilt was wanting, he was discharged. At length, these suspicions gaining strength, he was apprehended on the Tombigbee river, in Missouri Territory, in February, 1807, brought to Richmond under military escort, and committed in order to take his trial upon two charges exhibited against him on the part of the United States. First, for a high misdemeanour in setting on foot within the United States a military expedition against the king of Spain, with whom the United States were at peace; second, for treason in assembling an armed force, with a design to seize the city of New Orleans, to revolutionize the territory attached to it, and to separate the Atlantic States from the Western. It was supposed that he intended to make New Orleans the seat of his dominions, and the capital of his empire. In August, after a trial before Judge Marshall, the chief-justice of the United States, evidence of his guilt not being presented, he was acquitted by the jury.

In June of this year (1807) an alleged outrage was committed upon the United States' frigate, the Chesapeake, by the British ship of war Leopard, which produced throughout the country a general burst of indignation. The Chesapeake, commanded by Commodore Barron, having been ordered on a cruise in the Mediterranean, sailed from Hampton Roads on the 22d of June. She had proceeded but a few leagues from the coast, when she was overtaken by the Leopard. A British officer came on board, with an order from Vice-admiral Berkely, to take from the Chesapeake three men, alleged to be deserters from the Melampus frigate. These men, it appears, were American citizens, who had been impressed by the British, but had deserted, and enlisted in the American service. Commodore Barron replied to the British officer in terms of politeness, but refused to have his crew mustered for examination by any officers but his own. Commodore Barron was unprepared for an attack, not contemplating the possibility of meeting an enemy so near the Capes; but, during this interview, he noticed preparations on board the Leopard, indicative of a hostile disposition, and he immediately gave orders to prepare for action. But before any efficient preparations could be made, the Leopard opened a broadside upon the Chesapeake. After re-

ceiving her fire about thirty minutes, during which time the Americans had three men killed, and eighteen wounded, Commodore Barron ordered the colours to be struck. An officer from the Leopard came on board, and took four men, the three who had been previously demanded, and another, who, they affirmed, had deserted from a merchant vessel. Commodore Barron observed that he considered the Chesapeake a prize of the Leopard. The officer replied, "No," he had obeyed his orders in taking out the men, and had nothing further to do with her. This event produced great excitement. That rancour of party which had so long embittered all the intercourse of social life, was lost in the general desire to avenge a common wrong. The president, by proclamation, commanded all British armed vessels within the harbours or waters of the United States to depart from the same without delay, and prohibited others from entering. Mr. Monroe, the American minister in London, was instructed to demand reparation; and a special Congress was called.

In November, Britain issued her orders in council, a measure declared to be in retaliation of the French decree of November, 1806. These orders in council prohibited all neutral nations from trading with France, or her allies, except upon the condition of paying tribute to England. This was immediately followed by a decree of Bonaparte, at Milan, which declared that every vessel which should submit to be searched or pay tribute to the English, should be confiscated if found within his ports.

Thus was the commerce of America subjected to utter ruin, as almost all her vessels were, on some of these pretences, liable to capture. The American government, after much discussion, resorted to an embargo on their own vessels, as a measure best fitted to the crisis. This would effectually secure the mercantile property, and the mariners now at home, and also those who were daily arriving; and, at the same time, it would not be a measure of war, or a just cause of hostility.

Mr. Monroe was instructed not only to demand satisfaction for the Chesapeake, but to obtain security against future impressments from American ships. But Mr. Canning, the British minister, objected to uniting these subjects, and Mr. Monroe was not authorized to treat them separately. Mr. Rose was sent envoy extraordinary to the United States, to adjust the difficulty which had arisen on account of the Chesapeake. In 1808, Commodore Barron was tried for prematurely surrendering that frigate.

In 1809, Mr. Jefferson's second term of office having expired, he declared his wish to retire from public life, and Mr. Madison, who

had during Mr. Jefferson's administration held the important office of secretary of state, was elected president. Mr. George Clinton, of New York, was re-elected vice-president.

Mr. Jefferson's political course had given satisfaction to a vast majority of the people of the United States; and when he retired to the shades of Monticello he was followed by the good wishes of his countrymen. At the expiration of his second term of service, he declined a re-election, and withdrawing to his farm at Monticello, resumed the favourite studies and occupations from which his public duties had so long withheld him. On this spot, endeared by attachments which had descended with it from his ancestors, and scarcely less cherished from the embellishments with which his own taste had adorned it; on this elevated seclusion, of which more than forty years ago Chastelleux had said, "it seemed, as if from his youth, he had placed his mind as he had his house, upon a high situation, from which he might contemplate the universe;" he appears to have realized all that the imagination can conceive of a happy retirement, that blessing after which all aspire, but so few are destined to enjoy. There, surrounded by all that can give lustre or enjoyment to existence, an exalted reputation, universal esteem, the means of indulging in the studies most congenial to him, a numerous and affectionate family, enlivened by the pilgrimage of strangers who hastened to see what they had so long venerated, a correspondence that still preserved his sympathies with the world he had left, blessed with all the consolations which gently slope the decline of life, he gave up to philosophical repose the remainder of that existence already protracted beyond the ordinary limits assigned to men. But it was not in his nature to be unoccupied, and his last years were devoted to an enterprise every way worthy of his character. Aware how essentially free institutions depend on the diffusion of knowledge, he endeavoured to establish in his native State a seminary of learning; and his success may be seen in the rising prosperity of the University of Virginia, his last and crowning work.

The time, however, had arrived, when his cares and his existence were to end. His health had been through life singularly robust; as the vigorous frame which nature had bestowed on him was preserved by habits of great regularity and temperance. But for some months previous to his death he was obviously declining, and at length, on the 4th of July, 1826, in the eighty-fourth year of his age, he died with the firmness and self-possession native to his character, and the last hours of his existence were cheered and consecrated by the return of that day, when, of all others, it was most fit that he should

die—the birthday of his country. He felt that this was not his appropriate resting-place, and he gave up to God his enfeebled frame and his exhausted spirit, on the anniversary almost of that hour, which, half a century before, had seen him devoting the mature energies of his mind and the concentrated affections of his heart to the freedom of his country.

In person, Mr. Jefferson was tall, erect, and well-formed, though thin. His countenance was bland and expressive, his conversation fluent, entertaining, and abounding in various information. Few men equalled him in the art of pleasing in personal intercourse. His complexion was fair, his forehead was broad, and his whole face square, and expressive of a mild but determined spirit. In disposition, Mr. Jefferson was liberal and benevolent, his charity being as bountiful as it was unostentatious. He was warmly attached to his children and relatives. His mind was capacious and powerful, and a wide range of thought and study had stored it with the treasures of knowledge. He was, perhaps, the most philosophical of American statesmen, Franklin alone excepted. His faith in the capacity of humanity was firm through life, and from it flowed those liberal, democratic sentiments which have exercised so vast an influence upon the politics of the United States. Up to the time of his death, he was considered the Nestor of the State-rights Democratic party. Mr. Jefferson lacked the voice and action necessary to an orator; but as a writer, either upon politics or general subjects, he had few superiors in America. His pen could give a life and a vivid attraction to any matter he chose to illustrate. The Declaration of Independence will endure as a monument of his literary skill, and as the great charter of the rights of man.

AARON BURR.

It is a part of the plan of this work to give the biographies of the vice-presidents of the United States. Those of the earlier vice-presidents have already been written under other heads. Aaron Burr is the first person who held that high office who had not previously been connected with the administration of the government. Colonel Burr was certainly one of the most remarkable characters in the early history of the great Republic. He possessed a combination of qualities which rendered him a leader in the council and

in the field. He was born in Newark, New Jersey, on the 6th of February, 1756, and was the son of Aaron Burr, president of the College of New Jersey. He graduated at Princeton when only sixteen years old. At the age of twenty years, he joined the American army, then in the vicinity of Boston. He volunteered to accompany General Arnold in the famous expedition against Quebec, by way of the Kennebec. Having endured with wonderful fortitude all the trials of that celebrated march through the wilderness, young Burr was appointed aid-de-camp to General Montgomery. In May, 1776, he returned to Canada, and was soon afterward appointed aid-de-camp to General Putnam. In the summer of 1777 he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the army. But ill health compelled him to resign his commission in March, 1779.

On the restoration of peace, Colonel Burr applied himself to the study of the law, and was admitted to the bar. He commenced to practise at Albany, New York, and soon met with that success which his abilities were calculated to achieve. He then married, and settled in the city of New York, where his energy and eloquence soon secured him great influence. In 1788, Colonel Burr was appointed attorney-general of the State, and in January, 1799, he was elected to a seat in the senate of the United States. In the following year he was appointed a judge of the supreme court of the State of New York, but he preferred to continue in his prominent position as a senator, and leader of the Democratic party. At the presidential election of 1800, Mr. Burr and Mr. Jefferson received an equal number of votes, and when the election devolved upon the house of representatives, thirty-six ballots were held before Mr. Jefferson was elected to the presidency. Colonel Burr became vice-president.

The conduct of Burr during the presidential canvass destroyed his popularity, and at the end of four years he had but few friends. In 1805 he became a candidate for governor of New York. Colonel Hamilton was at that time in the meridian of his fame and the rival of Colonel Burr in business and reputation. Having no confidence in the integrity of Burr, he gave vent to his opinions, and refusing to retract them, was challenged to fight a duel. The challenge was accepted, and Hamilton was mortally wounded. Soon after this bloody affair, Colonel Burr forsook his former employments and led a life full of mystery. He made frequent journeys to the West, and it soon became apparent that he was preparing an expedition, the purpose of which was unknown. But the government of the United States, suspecting him of the design of separating the Western States from the Union, watched his movements narrowly,

and at length its agents arrested him. He was brought to trial at Richmond, upon the charge of treason, and then of misdemeanour, but the evidence was insufficient to convict him of either charge. Yet the popular opinion was decidedly against him, and in June, 1808, he was induced to go to England. He remained abroad four years, and then, returning to New York, resumed the practice of the law. He declined several tempting offers of command from the Spanish-American republics. This extraordinary man died on Staten Island, on the 14th of September, 1836, in the eighty-first year of his age.

The character of Colonel Burr has excited a great deal of discussion. By the majority he is regarded as the Sergius Catiline of the American republic—a bold, artful, eloquent, but selfishly ambitious and corrupt man. His private life was undeniably dissolute, and in public life he displayed more of the mere political intriguer than any of his American contemporaries. As to the precise character of his schemes in the West, the world knows nothing, but suspects much that is to be condemned. In the latter part of his life, Colonel Burr certainly rejected several splendid opportunities for attaining power in the Spanish-American republics—opportunities that most ambitious men would have eagerly seized. Upon the whole, however, it is to be regretted that a man of such energy and ability had not possessed a purer and more honest heart.

GEORGE CLINTON.

George Clinton, vice-president during the second term of Jefferson's administration, and the first of Madison's, was born on the 26th of July, 1739, in the county of Ulster, New York. He was the youngest son of Colonel Charles Clinton, an emigrant from Ireland, and a gentleman of distinguished worth and high consideration. He was educated principally under the eye of his father, and received the instruction of a learned minister of the Presbyterian church, who had graduated in the University of Aberdeen; and, after reading law, in the office of William Smith, afterward chief-justice of Canada, he settled himself in that profession in the county of his nativity, where he rose to eminence.

In 1768 he took his seat as one of the members of the colonial Assembly, for the county of Ulster, and he continued an active mem-

ber of that body until it was merged in the Revolution. His energy of character, discriminating intellect, and undaunted courage, placed him among the chiefs of the Whig party, and he was always considered possessed of a superior mind and master spirit, on which his country might surely rely, in the darkest periods of her fortunes.

On the 22d of April, 1775, he was chosen by the provincial convention of New York one of the delegates to the Continental Congress, and took his seat in that illustrious body on the 15th of May. On the 4th of July, 1776, he was present at the glorious declaration of independence, and assented, with his usual energy and decision, to that measure; but having been appointed a brigadier-general in the militia, and also in the army, the exigencies of his country, at that trying hour, rendered it necessary for him to take the field in person, and he therefore retired from Congress immediately after his vote was given, and before the instrument was transcribed for the signature of the members, for which reason his name does not appear among the signers.

A constitution having been adopted for the State of New York on the 20th of April, 1777, he was chosen at the first election under it, both governor and lieutenant-governor, and he was continued in the former office for eighteen years, by triennial elections; when, owing to ill health, and a respect for the Republican principle of rotation in office, he declined a re-election.

During the Revolutionary war, he cordially co-operated with the immortal Washington; and without his aid, the army would have been disbanded, and the Northern separated from the Southern States, by the intervention of British troops. He was always at his post in the times that tried men's souls: at one period repelling the advances of the enemy from Canada, and at another meeting them in battle when approaching from the South. His gallant defence of Fort Montgomery, with a handful of men, against a powerful force commanded by Sir Henry Clinton, was equally honourable to his intrepidity and his skill.

The administration of Governor Clinton was characterized by wisdom and patriotism. He was a republican in principle and practice. After a retirement of five years, he was called by the citizens of the city and county of New York to represent them in the Assembly of the State; and to his influence and popularity may be ascribed, in a great degree, the change in his native State, which finally produced the important political revolution of 1801.

At that period, much against his inclination, but from motives of

patriotism, he consented to an election as governor; and in 1805, he was chosen vice-president of the United States, in which office he continued until his death, presiding with great dignity in the senate, and evincing, by his votes and his opinions, his decided hostility to constructive authority, and to innovations on the established principles of republican government.

He died at Washington, when attending to his duties as vice-president, and was interred in that city, where a monument was erected by the filial piety of his children, with this inscription, written by his nephew:—

"To the memory of George Clinton. He was born in the State of New York, on the 26th of July, 1739, and died in the city of Washington, on the 20th of April, 1812, in the seventy-third year of his age. He was a soldier and statesman of the Revolution. Eminent in council, and distinguished in war, he filled, with unexampled usefulness, purity, and ability, among many other offices, those of governor of his native State and of vice-president of the United States. While he lived, his virtue, wisdom, and valour were the pride, the ornament, and security of his country; and when he died, he left an illustrious example of a well-spent life, worthy of all imitation."

JOHN MARSHALL.

The members of the cabinet during Jefferson's administration were as follows:—Secretaries of State, John Marshall and James Madison; secretary of the treasury, Albert Gallatin; secretary of war, Henry Dearborn; secretaries of the navy, Robert Smith and Jacob Crowninshield; attorney-generals, Levi Lincoln, Robert Smith, John Breckenridge, and Cæsar A. Rodney. Gideon Granger was postmaster-general.

A few months' service as secretary of state brings the celebrated Judge, John Marshall, within the scope of this work. He was born at Germantown, Fauquier county, Virginia, on the 24th of September, 1755. The house in which he was born is not in existence. When he was quite a young man, the family moved to Goose's Creek, under Manassa's Gap, near the Blue Ridge, and still later to Oak Hill, where the family lived at the commencement of the Revolution. His father, Thomas Marshall, was a planter of limited means and

education, but of strong natural powers, which, cultivated by observation and reflection, gave him the reputation of extraordinary ability. He served with distinction in the Revolution as a colonel in the continental army. John was the eldest of fifteen children. The narrow fortune of Colonel Marshall, and the sparsely inhabited condition of Fauquier, compelled him to be almost exclusively the teacher of his children, and to his instructions, the chief-justice said, "he owed the solid foundation of all his success in life." He early implanted in his eldest son a taste for English literature, especially for poetry and history. At the age of twelve, John had *transcribed* the whole of Pope's Essay on Man, and some of his Moral Essays; and had committed to memory many of the most interesting passages of that distinguished poet.

At the age of fourteen he was placed with the Rev. Mr. Campbell, in Westmoreland, where for a year he was instructed in Latin, and had for a fellow-student James Monroe. The succeeding year was passed at his father's, where he continued to study under the Rev. Mr. Thompson, a Scotch gentleman, which "was the whole of the classical tuition he ever obtained. By the assistance of his father, however, and the persevering efforts of his own mind, he continued to enlarge his knowledge, while he strengthened his body by 'hardy, athletic exercises in the open air. He engaged in field-sports; he indulged his solitary meditations amid the wildest scenery of nature; he delighted to brush away the earliest dews of the morning.'" To these early habits in a mountain region he owed a vigorous constitution. The simple manner of living among the people of those regions of that early day, doubtless contributed its share. He ever recurred with fondness to that primitive mode of life, when he partook, with a keen relish, of balm-tea and mush, and when the females used thorns for pins.

In the summer of 1775 he was appointed lieutenant in the "Minute Battalion," and had an honourable share in the battle of Great Bridge. In July, 1776, he was appointed first lieutenant in the eleventh Virginia regiment, on the continental establishment, which marched to the North in the ensuing winter; and in May, 1777, he was promoted to a captaincy. He was in a skirmish at Iron Hill, and at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He was one of that body of men, never surpassed in the history of the world, who, unpaid, unclothed, unfed, tracked the snows of Valley Forge with the blood of their footsteps in the rigorous winter of 1778, and yet turned not their faces from their country in resentment, or from their enemies in fear.

That part of the Virginia line which was not ordered to Charleston, S. C., being in effect dissolved by the expiration of the term of enlistment of the soldiers, the officers (among whom was Captain Marshall) were, in the winter of 1779–80, directed to return home, in order to take charge of such men as the State legislature should raise for them. It was during this season of inaction that he availed himself of the opportunity of attending a course of law lectures given by Mr. Wythe, afterward chancellor of the State; and a course of lectures on natural philosophy, given by Mr. Madison, president of William and Mary College in Virginia. He left this college in the summer vacation of 1780, and obtained a license to practise law. In October he returned to the army, and continued in service until the termination of Arnold's invasion. After this period, and before the invasion of Phillips, in February, 1781, there being a redundancy of officers in the Virginia line, he resigned his commission.

During the invasion of Virginia, the courts of law were not reopened until after the capitulation of Lord Cornwallis. Immediately after that event, Mr. Marshall commenced the practice of law, and soon rose into distinction at the bar. In the spring of 1782 he was elected a member of the State legislature, and, in the autumn of the same year, a member of the executive council. In January, 1783, he married Miss Ambler, the daughter of a gentleman who was then treasurer of the State, and to whom he had become attached before he left the army. This lady lived for nearly fifty years after her marriage, to partake of the distinguished honours of her husband. In 1784 he resigned his seat at the council-board in order to return to the bar; and he was immediately afterward again elected a member of the legislature for the county of Fauquier, of which he was then only nominally an inhabitant, his actual residence being at Richmond. In 1787 he was elected a member from the county of Henrico; and though at that time earnestly engaged in the duties of his profession, he embarked largely in the political questions which then agitated the State, and, indeed, the whole confederacy.

Every person at all read in our domestic history must recollect the dangers and difficulties of those days. The termination of the Revolutionary war left the country impoverished and exhausted by its expenditures, and the national finances at a low state of depression. The powers of Congress under the confederation, which even during the war were often prostrated by the neglect of a single State to enforce them, became in the ensuing peace utterly relaxed and inefficient.

Credit, private as well as public, was destroyed. Agriculture and commerce were crippled. The delicate relation of debtor and creditor

became more and more embarrassed and embarrassing; and, as is usual upon such occasions, every sort of expedient was resorted to by popular leaders, as well as by men of desperate fortunes, to inflame the public mind, and to bring into odium those who laboured to preserve the public faith and to establish a more energetic government. The whole country was soon divided into two great parties, the one of which endeavoured to put an end to the public evils by the establishment of a government over the Union, which should be adequate to all its exigencies, and act directly on the people; the other was devoted to State authority, jealous of all federal influence, and determined at every hazard to resist its increase.

It is almost unnecessary to say that Mr. Marshall could not remain an idle or indifferent spectator of such scenes. As little doubt could there be of the part he would take in such a contest. He was at once arrayed on the side of Washington and Madison. In Virginia, as everywhere else, the principal topics of the day were paper money, the collection of taxes, the preservation of public faith, and the administration of civil justice. The parties were nearly equally divided upon all these topics; and the contest concerning them was continually renewed. In such a state of things, every victory was but a temporary and questionable triumph, and every defeat still left enough of hope to excite to new and strenuous exertions. The affairs, too, of the confederacy were then at a crisis. The question of the continuance of the Union, or a separation of the States, was freely discussed; and, what is almost startling now to repeat, either side of it was maintained without reproach. Mr. Madison was at this time, and had been for two or three years, a member of the house of delegates, and was in fact the author of the resolution for the general convention at Philadelphia to revise the confederation. He was at all times the enlightened advocate of union, and of an efficient federal government, and he received on all occasions the steady support of Mr. Marshall. Many have witnessed, with no ordinary emotions, the pleasure with which both of these gentlemen looked back upon their co-operation at that period, and the sentiments of profound respect with which they habitually regarded each other.

Both of them were members of the convention subsequently called in Virginia for the ratification of the federal constitution. This instrument, having come forth under the auspices of General Washington and other distinguished patriots of the Revolution, was at first favourably received in Virginia, but it soon encountered decided hostility. Its defence was uniformly and most powerfully main-

tained there by Mr. Marshall. He was then not thirty years old. It was in these debates that Mr. Marshall's mind acquired the skill in political discussion which afterward distinguished him, and which would of itself have made him conspicuous as a parliamentarian, had not that talent been eversliadowed by his renown in a more soberly illustrious though less dazzling career. Here, too, it was that he conceived that deep dread of disunion, and that profound conviction of the necessity for closer bonds between the States, which gave the colouring to the whole texture of his opinions upon federal politics in after life.

The constitution being adopted, Mr. Marshall was prevailed upon to serve in the legislature until 1792. From that time until 1795 he devoted himself exclusively to his profession. In 1795, when Jay's treaty was "the absorbing theme of bitter controversy," he was elected to the house of delegates, and his speech in its defence, says Judge Story, "has always been represented as one of the noblest efforts of his genius. His vast powers of reasoning were displayed with the most gratifying success. . . . . The fame of his admirable argument spread through the Union. Even with his political enemies it enhanced the estimate of his character; and it brought him at once to the notice of some of the most eminent statesmen who then graced the councils of the nation."

Soon after, he, with Messrs. Pinckney and Gerry, was sent by President Adams as envoy extraordinary to France. The Directory refused to negotiate, and though the direct object of the embassy failed, much was effected by the official papers the envoys addressed to Talleyrand, her minister of foreign relations, in showing France to be in the wrong. These papers—models of skilful reasoning, clear illustration, accurate detail, and urbane and dignified moderation—have always been attributed to Marshall, and bear internal marks of it. Such was the impression made by the despatches, that on the arrival of Mr. Marshall in New York in June, 1798, his entry had the éclat of a triumph. A public dinner was given him by both houses of Congress, "as an evidence of affection for his person, and of their grateful approbation of the patriotic firmness with which he sustained the dignity of his country during his important mission;" and the country at large responded with one voice to the sentiment: "Millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute."

Mr. Marshall was elected to Congress in 1799. He had not been there three weeks when it became his lot to announce the death of Washington. Never could such an event have been told in language more impressive or more appropriate. "Mr. Speaker—The melan-

choly event, which was yesterday announced with doubt, has been rendered too certain. Our Washington is no more! The hero, the patriot, and the sage of America: the man on whom in times of danger every eye was turned, and all hopes were placed, lives now only in his own great actions, and in the hearts of an affectionate and afflicted people," &c. &c. That house of representatives abounded in talent of the first order for debate; and none were more conspicuous than John Marshall. Indeed, when the law or constitution were to be discussed, he was, confessedly, the first man in the house. When he discussed them, he exhausted them; nothing more remained to be said; and the impression of his argument effaced that of every one else.

In 1800 he was appointed secretary of state, an office which he held but a few months. He was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court of the United States, January 31, 1801. The nomination was unanimously confirmed by the senate. How well he filled that office is known to his countrymen. We shall not attempt to protract our account of the last thirty-five years of Judge Marshall's life. It was spent in the diligent and upright, as well as able discharge of his official duties; sometimes presiding in the supreme court at Washington, sometimes assisting to hold the circuit federal courts in Virginia and North Carolina. His residence was in Richmond, whence it was his frequent custom to walk out, a distance of three or four miles, to his farm. He had also a farm in his native county, Fauquier, which he annually visited, and where he always enjoyed a delightful intercourse with numerous relations and friends. Twice in these thirty-five years, he may be said to have mingled in political life; but not in party politics. In 1828 he was a member of a convention held in Charlottesville, to devise a system of internal improvement for the State to be commended to the legislature. In 1829 he was a member of the convention to revise and amend the State constitution, where he delivered a speech regarded as an unrivalled specimen of lucid and conclusive reasoning.

"No man more highly relished social and even convivial enjoyments. He was a member of a club which for forty-eight summers met once a fortnight near Richmond, to pitch quoits and mingle in relaxing conversation; and there was not one more delightedly punctual in his attendance at these meetings, or who contributed more to their pleasantness; scarcely one who excelled him in the manly game from which the 'Quoit Club' drew its designation. He would hurl his iron ring of two pounds weight, with rarely erring aim, fifty-five or sixty feet; and at some *chef-d'œuvre* of skill in

himself or his partner, would spring up and clap his hands with all the light-hearted enthusiasm of boyhood. Such is the old age which follows a temperate, an innocent, and a useful life."

Chief-justice Marshall died at Philadelphia, July 6, 1835, in his eightieth year. "The love of simplicity and dislike of ostentation, which had marked his life, displayed itself also in his last days. Apprehensive that his remains might be encumbered with the vain pomp of a costly monument and a laudatory epitaph, he, only two days before his death, directed the common grave of himself and his consort to be indicated by a plain stone, with this simple and modest inscription:—"JOHN MARSHALL, son of THOMAS and MARY MARSHALL, was born on the 24th of September, 1755; intermarried with MARY WILLIS AMBLER, the 3d of January, 1783; departed this life the —— day of ———, 18—." This unostentatious inscription, with the blanks only filled, is carved on the plain white marble monument erected over his remains in the graveyard at Shoccoe Hill, Richmond. The late Francis W. Gilmer thus described the intellectual character of Judge Marshall:—

"His mind is not very richly stored with knowledge; but it is so creative, so well organized by nature, or disciplined by early education, and constant habits of systematic thinking, that he embraces every subject with the clearness and facility of one prepared by previous study to comprehend and explain it. So perfect is his analysis that he extracts the whole matter, the kernel of inquiry, unbroken, clean, and entire. In this process, such are the instinctive neatness and precision of his mind that no superfluous thought, or even word, ever presents itself, and still he says every thing that seems appropriate to the subject. This perfect exemption from needless encumbrance of matter or ornament, is in some degree the effect of an aversion to the labour of thinking. So great a mind, perhaps, like large bodies in the physical world, is with difficulty set in motion. That this is the case with Mr. Marshall's is manifest from his mode of entering on an argument, both in conversation and in public debate. It is difficult to rouse his faculties; he begins with reluctance, hesitation, and vacancy of eye; presently, his articulation becomes less broken, his eye more fixed, until, finally, his voice is full, clear, and rapid; his manner bold, and his whole face lighted up with the mingled fires of genius and passion; and he pours forth the unbroken stream of eloquence, in a current deep, majestic, smooth, and strong. He reminds one of some great bird, which flounders and flounces on the earth for a while, before it acquires *impetus* to sustain a soaring flight.

ALBERT GALLATIN.

This distinguished financier was born at Geneva, in Switzerland. He was left an orphan in his infancy; but under the kind protection of a female relative of his mother, received a very thorough education, and graduated at the University of Geneva in 1779. His family friends were wealthy and highly respectable; and we have been told that his aged grandfather, with whom he resided, was deeply imbued with the aristocratic prejudices of the ancient *regime.* Young Albert, on the contary, was an ardent Republican, and made no secret of his adhesion to the Revolutionary school. Without the knowledge or consent of his family, Albert, then only nineteen, with a comrade of the same sentiments, left the home of his father to seek glory and fortune, and freedom of thought, in the infant republic of America. He was recommended by a friend to the patronage of Dr. Franklin, then at Paris. He arrived in Boston in July, 1780, and soon after proceeded to Maine, where he purchased land, and resided till the end of 1781 at Machias and Passamaquoddy. Here he served as a volunteer under Colonel John Allen, and made advances from his private purse for the support of the garrison. In the spring of 1782 he was appointed instructer in the French language at Harvard University, where he remained about a year. Going to Virginia in the fall of 1783 to attend to the claims of an European house for advances to that State, he fell in with many of the eminent men of the State, and particularly with Patrick Henry, who treated him with marked kindness and respect, and predicted his future eminence. In accordance with Mr. Henry's advice, Mr. Gallatin sought his fortune in the new and wild country then just opening on the Ohio, and purchased considerable tracts of land in Western Virginia, between 1783 and 1785. In December, 1785, he purchased his plantation at New Geneva, Fayette county, Pennsylvania, where he subsequently established the glass-works.

His talents for public life soon became extensively known, and he was honoured in 1789 with a seat in the convention to amend the constitution of Pennsylvania. In that convention he took a decided stand on the Democratic side, opposing the pretensions of property as an element in political power, and advocating the extension of the right of suffrage, restricted only by length of residence. When the new federal constitution was before the country for adoption, he took

ground against it; but when adopted, lent it his efficient support. He became distinguished with all parties in the legislature for his ready comprehension of the great questions at issue, particularly of financial subjects; and was elected to the United States senate in February, 1793, notwithstanding there existed a majority in the legislature opposed to his own party, and though he had himself expressed doubts respecting his own eligibility. When he took his seat in December, the question of his citizenship was revived, and he lost his seat, after an elaborate examination and report, on the ground that he had not been nine years a legally naturalized citizen of the United States. The question was decided by a strict party vote of fourteen to twelve, in February, 1794, between the Federalists and Democrats. Mr. Gallatin soon after married a daughter of Commodore Nicholson, a distinguished officer of our navy, and returned to Fayette county. While contesting his seat in the senate, he received through Robert Morris a thousand guineas from his family friends, who, it would seem, had not for some time previously been apprized of his movements in this county.

During the whisky insurrection of 1794, Mr. Gallatin, although sympathizing with the insurgents in lawful and constitutional opposition to the law, yet boldly and openly opposed the adoption of warlike and treasonable measures. In this course he was sustained by the people of his own county; and his popularity was evidenced in October of the same year by his election to Congress from the Washington and Greene county district, (although he did not reside in it,) in opposition to Hugh H. Breckenridge. Both were of the Democratic party. Mr. Gallatin was not aware of his being himself a candidate until the election was announced to him. He had been at the same time elected to the legislature from Fayette country.

In Congress, where he continued during three terms, he was distinguished as a leader of his party, in conjunction with Madison and Giles. He was appointed secretary of the treasury by Mr. Jefferson, in 1801—a post which he occupied for a number of years with pre-eminent ability. His official reports are models of clearness and conciseness: in one of these he originated the project of the National road.

On retiring from the cabinet in 1813, he entered upon his diplomatic career in Europe, as one of the commissioners at Ghent, in negotiating the peace with Great Britain; and soon afterward associated with Messrs. Adams and Clay, at London, in negotiating the commercial treaty with that power. He continued in Europe, as ambassador at Paris, until 1823, when he returned to the new

mansion which had been built during his absence at New Geneva, and spent a few years in dignified retirement. He was again minister to England in 1816. On his return he sold his place at New Geneva, and resided for a time in Baltimore; and subsequently removed to New York He was for many years president of the National Bank. He died in New York city in 1850, at the venerable age of eighty-nine years. For many years, Mr. Gallatin stood at the head of the financiers of the country. Notwithstanding his foreign birth, his state papers display a masterly command of the English language, and are models in every respect.

HENRY DEARBORN.

Henry Dearborn, distinguished both as a soldier and a statesman, was born in New Hampshire in 1751. Having received a thorough education, he studied physic, and then commenced practice as a physician in Portsmouth. He was a zealous patriot, and on receiving intelligence of the battle of Lexington, he collected sixty volunteers, and marched with them to Cambridge, Massachusetts. He then served as captain in Colonel John Stark's regiment at the battle of Bunker Hill, and afterward accompanied Arnold in the famous expedition through the wilderness of Maine to Quebec. Here he was captured by the enemy, and put in close imprisonment; but in May, 1776, the patriot soldier was permitted to return home on parole. In March, 1777, he was exchanged, and was thus once more at liberty to join the forces of his country.

Having received the rank of major, Dearborn served with gallantry in the army under General Gates. He then joined the army commanded by Washington, and at the battle of Monmouth distinguished himself by a dashing charge upon the enemy, and was especially complimented by the commander-in-chief. In 1777, Dearborn accompanied General Sullivan in his expedition against the Indians. In 1780 he was with the army in New Jersey, and in 1781 he was at Yorktown at the surrender of Cornwallis. Thus he served throughout the Revolutionary war, and participated in most of its trying scenes.

In 1789, President Washington appointed General Dearborn marshal of the district of Maine. Subsequently he was twice elected to Congress from that district. In 1801, President Jefferson

appointed him to the responsible position of secretary of war, and he held that office until 1809, when he was appointed collector of the port of Boston, a very lucrative post.

In 1812, Dearborn received a commission as senior major-general in the army of the United States. He superintended operations on the Northern frontier; but, although he captured York, in Upper Canada, and Fort George, at the mouth of the Niagara, sickness prevented him from achieving any success commensurate with the expectations of the public mind, and in July, 1813, he was recalled by President Madison. He was next ordered to assume the command of military district of New York city. In 1822, General Dearborn was appointed minister plenipotentiary to Portugal. He remained abroad two years, and then returned to New England broken down with age and infirmities. This distinguished patriot and warrior died in 1829, at the age of seventy-eight years.

ROBERT SMITH.

Robert Smith of Maryland was a prominent public man during the early administration of the United States government. He was a native of Maryland, and educated for a legal and political career. But at the breaking out of the Revolutionary war, Mr. Smith obtained a commission as captain, and joined the forces of the patriots. His talents soon attracted the attention of Washington, and it was by the influence of that great man that he was appointed secretary of the board of war in May, 1778. This office, however, he was induced to decline, as he preferred active service. In November, 1789, the name of Mr. Smith was mentioned in connection with the office of district judge of Maryland. He then resided at Baltimore and practised his profession. But Washington, while he acknowledged the talents of Mr. Smith, decided to appoint an older and more experienced person, and William Paca received the office. On the 15th of July, 1801, Mr. Smith was appointed secretary of the navy. On the 2d of March, 1805, he was transferred to the post of attorney-general; and on the 6th of March, 1809, he was raised to the office of secretary of state. In April, 1811, he resigned his high trust, and retired to private life. By a long train of public service he had entitled himself to the gratitude of his countrymen, and made an impression upon the politics of the nation deep enough to perpetuate his name.

LEVI LINCOLN.

Levi Lincoln was born in Massachusetts in 1749. He was well educated, and graduated at Harvard College in 1772. He then studied law and commenced practice in the town of Worcester, in his native State, where he soon acquired a high reputation for ability and learning. In 1801, President Jefferson appointed him attorney-general of the United States, and he continued in that office until December, 1805. In 1807 and 1808, Mr. Lincoln was chosen lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, and on the death of Sullivan, in December, 1808, he acted as governor during the remainder of the political year. He died in 1820, at the age of seventy-one years. His character was estimable in every respect.

JOHN BRECKENRIDGE.

John Breckenridge was the second son of Colonel Robert Breckenridge, of Augusta county, Virginia, and was born where the town of Staunton now stands, on the 2d of December, 1760. At a very early age, he was carried by his father to the neighbourhood of Fincastle, in Bottetourt county, Virginia, whither he removed, and where he died, when his son was about eleven years of age; leaving a widow and seven children in circumstances which we should now consider narrow; and exposed, upon what was then almost the extreme limit of the white settlements, to all the dangers of an Indian frontier.

Raised in the midst of dangers, hardships, and privations, the traditions of his family replete only with tales of suffering and exile for conscience' sake; with a widowed mother and orphan family—of which he became the head at the age of early boyhood—the objects of his constant care; it is by no means strange that his powerful character should have been early and remarkably developed. A calm, simple, correct man—gentle to those he loved—stern and open to those he could not trust—always true, always brave, always self-dependent, it is just in such a way, that such circumstances would mould and develop such a nature as his. But it is not easy to ascertain how it was, that in his circumstances, there should have been implanted in him, from earliest childhood, a thirst for knowledge that seemed to

the end of his life insatiable; nor could any thing less than the highest mental endowments, directed with energy that never flagged, explain the extent, the variety, and the richness of the acquisitions which he was enabled to make. His education, both preparatory and professional, was privately conducted, and so far as is now known, chiefly without other aid than books, except about two years, which he spent at the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. During the latter part of his attendance at this ancient seat of learning, and when he was about nineteen years of age, he was elected to the Virginia house of burgesses, from the county of Bottetourt, without his having even suspected that such a matter was in agitation. On account of his youth, the election was twice set aside, and it was only on the third return, and against his own wishes and remonstrances, that he took his seat. From this time to the period of his death, he lived constantly, as a lawyer and a statesman, in the public eye.

In the year 1785 he married Mary Hopkins Cabell, a daughter of Colonel Joseph Cabell, of Buckingham county, Virginia; and settled in the county of Albemarle, and practised law in that region of Virginia, until the year 1793, in the spring of which he removed to Kentucky, and settled in Lexington; near to which place, at "Cabell's Dale," in the county of Fayette, he resided till the period of his death, which occurred on the 14th December, 1806, when he had just completed his forty-sixth year.

As a statesman, very few men of his generation occupied a more commanding position, or mingled more controllingly with all the great questions of the day; and not one enjoyed a more absolute popularity, or maintained a more spotless reputation. He took a leading, perhaps a decisive part in all the great questions of a local character that agitated Kentucky, from 1793 to 1806, and whose settlement still exerts a controlling influence upon the character of her people and institutions. The constitution of 1798–9, which is still preserved unaltered, was more the work of his hands than of any one single man. The question of negro slavery, as settled in that constitution, upon a middle and moderate ground—the systematizing, to some extent, the civil and criminal codes—the simplification of the land law—the law of descents—the penitentiary system—the abolition of the punishment of death, except for wilful murder and treason —all these, and many other important subjects, of a kindred nature, fell under his moulding labours at the forming period of the commonwealth, and remain still nearly as they were adjusted half a century ago. In those vital questions that involved the destiny of the whole West, and threatened the plan, if not the continuance of the Union

itself, no man took an earlier or more decided stand. It is capable of proof, that the *free navigation* of the Mississippi river, and subsequently the purchase of Louisiana, (which latter act, though it covered Mr. Jefferson with glory, he hesitated to perform, upon doubts both as to its policy and constitutionality,) were literally forced upon the general government by demonstrations from the West, in which the mind and the hands of this far-sighted statesman were conspicuous above all.

Mr. Breckenridge served the public in the legislature, in the senate of the United States, and as the attorney-general under Mr. Jefferson's administration, and in all these positions his great powers of mind rendered him among the most conspicuous men of his day.

CÆSAR A. RODNEY.

Cæsar A. Rodney was the son of the Revolutionary patriot and statesman, Cæsar Rodney, of Delaware. His parentage gave him brilliant opportunities and he was fitted to improve them. Having received a classical education, he removed to Pennsylvania, and there commenced the practice of law. On the 20th of January, 1807, he was appointed attorney-general of the United States. He resigned this post in December, 1811, and once more resumed the regular practice of his profession in Pennsylvania.

GIDEON GRANGER,

The postmaster-general under Jefferson's administration, was born in Connecticut, in 1767. Being of a very respectable family, he received the benefits of an excellent education, and graduated at Yale College in 1787. He then studied law, and commenced the practice of his profession in his native State. In 1801 he was appointed postmaster-general, although still a young man, and he held that important office until 1814. He then became an inhabitant of the State of New York, and was soon prominent among the most public-spirited citizens. He was elected to the senate of the State, where he laboured hard to advance internal improvements. He gave one thousand acres of land in aid of the great canal. This eminent and active citizen died in 1822, at the age of fifty-five years.

James Madison.

JAMES MADISON, Jun.

Among those who acted as the organizers of our system of government, James Madison deserves a most conspicuous rank. He was intended for a statesman from his youth, and made himself master of constitutional law, when it was hardly known as a science either in England or in this country. He was born on the sixteenth of March, 1751, and, of course, was in all the ardour and freshness of youth on the breaking out of the Revolution. In 1775, Mr. Madison was a member of the legislature of Virginia, and at that early age was distinguished for his maturity of understanding and sage prudence. He was soon appointed one of the council of state. During the whole eventful struggle, James Madison had the confidence of the State of Virginia; and, as a member of her legislature, was listened to with profound attention when he brought forward sundry resolutions for the formation of a general government for the United States, based upon the inefficiency of the old confederation. From these resolutions grew a convention of delegates from the several States, who, in conclave, prepared a form of a constitution to be submitted to the several States for their discussion, approbation, and adoption. Mr. Madison was a member of this convention, as a delegate from Virginia, and took an active part in the deliberations of that enlightened body, of which Washington, his colleague, was president. On the adoption of this constitution—a wonderful era in the history of the liberties of man—Mr. Madison was elected a member of the first Congress, and took an active part in setting the machinery in motion. At this period public opinion was greatly agitated by the crude and false opinions scattered through the country, through the medium of the opposition presses; this was grievous to the friends of the constitution, and three mighty minds, Jay, Hamilton, and Madison, formed a holy alliance to enlighten the people upon the great doc-

trines of the constitution, and breaking through the host of the Philistines, drew the pure waters of truth for the good of the people. The essays from the pens of these worthies, were collected in a volume, called the Federalist, which now stands a monument of the wisdom and patriotism of that age. In the debates of the first Congress, Mr. Madison took a large share. It was an illustrious assemblage of patriots, among whom there often arose a difference of opinion in regard to political policy, but all were lovers of their country, and labouring for her best interests. Here Mr. Madison acted with the Cabots and the Ameses of the East, in perfect harmony. It was reserved for an after age to feel the withering effects of party feuds. These were hardly discovered as long as the father of his country filled the presidential chair. In the administration of his successor, a separation into parties took place, and Mr. Madison ranked himself on the side of Mr. Jefferson and his party. During the presidency of Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison was secretary of state, and sustained that office with singular ability. He held a ready pen, had a clear, philosophical perception of the great principles on which the government professed to act, and could readily produce a defence of the course pursued. No secretary ever did, or ever will do more by force of argument, than Mr. Madison, while supporting the measures of Mr. Jefferson.

He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1809.

On the 1st of March the embargo was repealed. Congress interdicted by law all trade and intercourse with France and England; and on the 12th of April passed an act to raise an additional force. On the 23d of April, Mr. Erskine, minister plenipotentiary from his Britannic Majesty to the United States, pledged his court to repeal its anti-neutral decrees by the 10th of June; and in consequence of an arrangement now made with the British minister, the president proclaimed that commercial intercourse would be renewed on that day; but this arrangement was disavowed by the king. Mr. Erskine was recalled in October, and was succeeded by Mr. Jackson, who soon giving offence to the American government, all further intercourse with him was refused, and he was recalled.

On the 23d of March, 1810, Bonaparte issued the Rambouillet decree, ordering the seizure of all American vessels and cargoes arriving in any of the ports of France, or of any of the countries occupied by the French troops. This measure excited a retaliatory spirit in Congress, and on the 1st of May an act was passed excluding all British and French armed vessels from the ports of the United States; but providing that if either of those nations modified their

edicts before the third of March, 1811, commercial intercourse might be renewed. In pursuance of this act, on the 2d of November, President Madison issued a proclamation, announcing that the French decrees were revoked, and that intercourse between the United States and France might be renewed; and on the 10th of the same month, a proclamation was issued, interdicting commercial intercourse with Great Britain.

The year 1811 opened with the British government making reparation for the attack on the Chesapeake. Still, the majority clamored for war against Great Britain. The message of the president to Congress indicating an apprehension of hostilities with Great Britain, the committee of foreign relations in the house of representatives reported resolutions for filling up the ranks of the army; for raising an additional force of ten thousand men; for authorizing the president to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, and for ordering out the militia when he should judge it necessary; for repairing the navy; and for authorizing the arming of merchantmen in self-defence. These resolutions were principally agreed to. A bill from the senate for raising twenty-five thousand men, after much discussion, was agreed to by the house.

On the 16th of May there was an engagement between the United States frigate President, commanded by Captain Rodgers, and the British sloop-of-war Little Belt, commanded by Captain Bingham, in which the Little Belt had eleven men killed, and twenty-one wounded. Only one man of the frigate was wounded. The Little Belt gave the first fire.

The frontier settlers being seriously alarmed by hostile indications on the part of the Indians, Governor Harrison resolved to move toward the Prophet's town, on the Wabash, with a body of Kentucky and Indiana militia, and the 4th United States regiment, under Colonel Boyd, to demand satisfaction of the Indians and to put a stop to their threatened hostilities. His expedition was made early in November. On his approach within a few miles of the Prophet's town, the principal chiefs came out with offers of peace and submission, and requested the governor to encamp for the night. It was merely a treacherous artifice. At four in the morning the camp was furiously assailed, and a bloody and doubtful contest ensued. The Indians were finally repulsed with the loss, on the part of the Americans, of sixty-two killed, and one hundred and twenty-six wounded, and a still greater number on theirs. Colonel Davies, a distinguished lawyer, Colonel White, of the Saline, and several other valuable

officers, fell on this occasion. Governor Harrison having destroyed the Prophet's town, and established forts, returned to Vincennes.

On the 1st of June, the president communicated to Congress additional documents on the subject of our affairs with Great Britain. In his message, on this occasion, he strongly stated, as hostile acts, the impressment of American seamen by the British; the seizure of persons as British subjects, on the high seas, sailing under the American flag; the violation of the rights and the peace of our coasts by British cruisers; the blockading of their enemies' ports without an adequate force; and the orders in council affecting neutral rights; and suggested a suspicion that the Indians had been instigated to acts of hostility by British agents; and submitted the question, "Whether the United States shall continue passive under these progressive usurpations, and these accumulated wrongs; or, opposing force to force in defence of their national rights, shall commit a just cause into the hands of the Almighty Disposer of events."

On the 3d of June, the committee on foreign relations, to whom was referred the president's message, presented to the house of representatives a report, or manifesto of the causes and reasons of war with Great Britain; which was concluded by a recommendation of an immediate appeal to arms. The next day, a bill for declaring war with Great Britain passed the house of representatives; on the 17th it passed the senate; and on the 18th it was signed by the president, who, on the day following, issued a proclamation of the war.

The minority in the house of representatives entered a protest against the declaration of war; declaring, that the subject of impressments had been once satisfactorily adjusted in a treaty between the British court and the American envoys Monroe and Pinckney, and though that treaty was not ratified, the same terms might still be obtained; that official notice having been given of the repeal of the French decrees, they entertained no doubt of the revocation of the orders in council; that the blockading of enemies' ports without an adequate force was but a retaliation for the same conduct on the part of the French; and that the French government was considered the first and the greatest aggressor on neutral rights. Four days after the declaration of war, the decrees of Berlin and Milan having been officially revoked, the British orders in council were repealed.

The forces of the country were in no condition for war; but the navy, although small, was spirited and efficient. Mr. Monroe, secretary of state, was the only man in the government who had any military experience. But war was declared in June of 1812, and means of defence were to be found. The plan of military operations at the

commencement of the war, on the part of the United States, was to garrison and defend the seaboard principally by occasional calls of the neighbouring militia, aided by a few regular troops, the whole to be under the command of generals of the regular army, stationed at the most important points. With the remaining regular forces, together with such volunteers as could be procured, and the militia, to attack the British posts in Upper Canada, and subdue them. This province borders on the United States from the neighbourhood of Montreal westerly to an indefinite extent, and is separated from them by the waters of the St. Lawrence and the lakes, to the western extremity of the Lake of the Woods; along the shores of the lakes, and banks of the rivers communicating with them, is a fine tract of country, then containing one hundred thousand inhabitants, principally emigrants from the United States, who have removed there since the war of the Revolution. Northerly and westerly of these settlements was an immense wilderness thinly inhabited by Indians. The settlement of white inhabitants extended westward as far as the Detroit river, which conveys the waters of Lake Huron to Lake Erie. At the mouth of this river is the village of Amherstburg, furnishing one of the best harbours on the lake; and the military post of Malden, from whence the Indians of the north and west are supplied with goods, arms, and ammunition, and encouraged in acts of hostility against the frontier inhabitants of the United States. To break up this establishment, and subdue the province, was the first object of the military operations on the Canada border. It was confidently expected that the inhabitants needed only a demonstration of a respectable military force, and an assurance of protection, to induce them to revolt from the British, and join the American standard. This province being conquered, it was designed to push eastward to Montreal.

Immediately after the declaration of war had been issued, General William Hull, governor of Michigan Territory, collected about twenty-five hundred men, and passed over to Canada. There he issued a proclamation, couched in pompous terms, calling upon the inhabitants to submit to his arms or expect to suffer the extremities of war. But the general experienced considerable difficulty in getting supplies, and the Canadians showed no disposition to join his standard. Soon afterward, hearing that an army of British and Indians, under Brock and Tecumseh, were advancing against him, he fell back to Detroit, and fortified his position. The enemy followed, and it was expected that a general battle would take place; but on the 15th of August, General Hull surrendered his whole army without firing a gun. By

this great disaster, the whole north-western frontier was exposed to the ravages of the British and Indians. General Hull was exchanged, court-martialled, and sentenced to death for cowardly conduct. But in consequence of his Revolutionary services, the president commuted his punishment to a deprivation of all military command.

At sea the Americans were unexpectedly successful, and the boasted supremacy of the British navy was threatened with annihilation.

Commodore Hull, in the Constitution, sailed from the Chesapeake on the 12th of July; on the 17th, off Egg Harbour, he was chased by a ship of the line and four frigates. These ships approached rapidly with a fine breeze, while it was nearly calm about the Constitution. At sunrise of the 18th, escape appearing hopeless, as they had neared her considerably during the night, preparation was then made for action. The enemy still drawing near, another effort was made to escape. Boats were sent ahead with anchors for the purpose of warping. It was now nearly a calm with the British, and they resorted to the same expedient. The chase continued for two days, partly sailing with light breezes, and partly by warping. On the 20th the squadron was left entirely out of sight, and the Constitution made the harbour of Boston. On the 2d of August, Commodore Hull again put to sea, cruised along the eastern coast as far as the Bay of Fundy, in expectation of falling in with British frigates in that direction. Not finding any, he proceeded to take a station off the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to intercept the Quebec trade. Having here taking two or three merchantmen, he proceeded to the southward. On the 19th, he fell in with the British frigate Guerriere, rated at thirty-eight, but mounting fifty-four guns. This vessel had hoisted at her mast head, a flag with her name, the WARRIOR, in large characters, and on another was inscribed the words, *Not the Little Belt.* She had looked into several ports in quest of American frigates, and given a challenge to all vessels of her class. On the Constitution's heaving in sight, the British commander assembled his crew, pointed to them the object of their wishes, assured them of an easy victory, and being answered by three hearty cheers, backened sail, prepared for action, and awaited her approach. The two ships continued manœuvring to obtain the weathergage of each other for three quarters of an hour, the Guerriere occasionally firing broadsides. The Constitution reserved her fire until within about four musket-shot, when she opened her broadsides in quick succession upon her antagonist. The mizen-mast of the Guerriere was directly carried away, and her decks were swept by a raking fire. In thirty minutes from the time the Constitution fairly got alongside of her, every

mast and spar was gone, and she lay an unmangeable wreck. The firing ceased, and she surrendered. She was so much damaged as to render it impossible to bring her into port, and, the next day, was cleared of the prisoners, and every thing valuable, and set fire to and blown up. The damage sustained by the Constitution was of so little consequence, that she was prepared for action the next day, when another ship appeared in sight. The Constitution had seven killed, and the same number wounded; the Guerriere nineteen killed and sixty wounded. The news of this brilliant victory, the first on the ocean, was received with rapturous applauses by the American people. Every mark of respect was shown Commodore Hull and his gallant officers and crew. Congress granted fifty thousand dollars to the crew for the loss of their prize, and the executive promoted several of their officers. The event was as mortifying to the British as gratifying to the Americans.

Other brilliant naval victories were achieved by the Americans during the year. The Frolic, a British sloop-of-war, was captured after a severe engagement by the Wasp, commanded by Captain Jones. Commodore Decatur, of the United States frigate, fell in with the British frigate Macedonian, Captain Corden, off the Western Islands, and captured her, after an action of about an hour and a half. The loss of the Macedonian was thirty-six killed and sixty-eight wounded; of the United States, seven killed and five wounded. The United States frigate Constitution, Captain Bainbridge, after an action of nearly two hours, captured the British frigate Java. The American loss was nine killed and twenty-five wounded; the British, sixty killed and one hundred and one wounded. The American privateer schooner Dolphin, two guns, Captain Endicott, captured a British ship of fourteen guns and eighteen men.

On land, the whole campaign was disastrous for the Americans. After the surrender of Hull, a large, but undisciplined force assembled on the Niagara frontier, under the command of General Van Rensselaer. The militia demanded to be led against the enemy, and the general determined to gratify them by attacking the fortified position of Queenstown, on the opposite side of the river. The principal British force was at Fort George; but they had made an establishment, and erected batteries on the heights above Queenstown; against these batteries, the efforts of the American troops were to be first directed. Batteries were erected on the American shore, to protect the passage and landing of the troops. The regular forces, under Colonel Fenwick and Major Mallary, were ordered up to Lewistown; and thirteen boats, being all that could be procured at the

time, were provided for crossing. The van of the troops destined for the attack, consisted of militia, under the command of Colonel Solomon Van Rensselaer, aid to the general; a part of the thirteenth infantry, under Colonel Christie; a detachment of the sixth and ninth, under Major Mallary; the whole amounting to four hundred men. At three o'clock, on the morning of the 13th, they proceeded from the camp at Lewistown to the place of embarkation. Colonel Van Rensselaer, to whom the chief command of the expedition was intrusted, with a hundred men, crossed over and effected a landing. A grape-shot from a battery below Queenstown, which enfiladed the passage, wounded Colonel Christie in the hand; his pilot became confused, his boatmen frightened, and he was obliged to return. The boats with Major Mallary were carried by the violence of the current below the landing-place, two of them were taken, and the others returned. In ascending the bank, Colonel Van Rensselaer received four wounds. Captains Armstrong, Wool, and Malcom were also wounded, and Lieutenant Valleau and Ensign Morris killed. A party of British troops having issued from an old fort below Queenstown, were fired upon by the Americans and compelled to retreat. The firing from the batteries on the heights soon obliged the Americans to take shelter under the bank. The small force of Americans kept their ground, however, chiefly through the efforts of Captain Wool. Reinforcements were received by both parties, and the battle was renewed with fury. The British were at length driven from the ground, and General Brock was killed in trying to rally them. The day was considered decided in favour of the Americans, when General Sheafe, with about one thousand British and Indians, arrived and renewed the conflict. General Van Rensselaer now ordered the militia to cross the river to aid their gallant comrades; but they refused to obey, and in spite of all threats and entreaties, they remained spectators of the fight. The troops already on the Canadian shore defended themselves bravely, but were at length overpowered and obliged to surrender. Sixty of the Americans were killed, one hundred wounded, and seven hundred surrendered themselves prisoners of war.

General Van Rensselaer having resigned the command shortly after the affair at Queenstown, it devolved upon Brigadier-general Smith, of the regular army, whose head-quarters were established at Buffalo, at the east end of Lake Erie. This officer, who had censured the plans of his predecessor as being rash and badly digested, immediately prepared for another expedition to the opposite side. In an address which was issued on the 12th of November,

he called upon "the men of New York," by every motive which can actuate freemen, to lend their aid to the enterprise. He proposed to them to volunteer for a short tour of duty, promising them that in a few days he would plant the American standard in Canada. The language of the proclamation, however, was unfortunately neither creditable to the literary talents nor to the modesty of its author; but, seconded by an address from General Porter, of the New York militia, it produced considerable effect upon the minds of the citizens in that quarter.

By this and other means a force of about four thousand five hundred men was assembled at Buffalo, on the 27th of November, consisting of regular troops, New York, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore volunteers. The orders under which General Smyth acted appear to have authorized or directed him to cross when he had a force of three thousand men. Preparatory to the descent which he now determined to make, a number of boats and scows were prepared, and on the night of the 27th two parties were sent over. The first, under Colonel Boerstler, were to destroy a bridge near Fort Erie, in which they entirely failed. The second party, commanded by Captain King, and Lieutenant Angus of the navy, was more successful. They were directed to storm the British batteries, which they effected with great bravery, and spiked the cannon. The greater part returned, with a number of prisoners; but Captain King, with the remainder, was captured by the enemy. Colonel Winder made an attempt to support this detachment, with about three hundred men; but was compelled to retreat, with the loss of six killed and twenty wounded. It was intended that the great enterprise should have been undertaken at reveille, on the succeeding day; and the embarkation accordingly commenced soon after that period, but went on so tardily, that it was afternoon when the whole was completed. The enemy now showed themselves in force, on the opposite shore, having, it was supposed, about five hundred men, with a piece of artillery.

General Smyth now called a council of officers, to determine on the expediency of proceeding. A large majority expressed their opinions against the measure; and the troops were accordingly ordered to debark. This measure excited great discontent among them; but the assurance that another attempt would be made, in some degree allayed it. The first day of December was then determined on for the renewal of the enterprise. It was intended to leave the American shore two hours before daylight, to land above Chippewa, and made an attack upon Queenstown and Fort George.

Daylight, however, arrived before the embarkation was completely effected; and the number of men with whom the descent was to be made, it was found, did not exceed fifteen hundred, exclusive of officers. A council was therefore called by the commanding officer, consisting of the field officers of the regular army, who unanimously decided that they ought not to proceed. The troops were therefore once more debarked. They were informed that the invasion of Canada was abandoned for the season, and were ordered into winter quarters.

Such were the results of these long-meditated attempts to obtain a footing in Canada. The disappointment and indignation of the militia and volunteers, who had been thus called from their homes, at an inclement season, to be made, as they thought, the victims of caprice, were excessive, and evinced themselves in some irregular and violent proceedings. The commander was openly accused of cowardice by General Porter; and his personal safety endangered, by the exasperated soldiery. He contended, however, in his vindication, that the number of troops in his power was insufficient to cope with the enemy. The regulars amounted only to eight hundred and sixty, and the whole force to little more than fifteen hundred; while upward of twenty-three hundred rations were issued on the British side. He added, that the regulars were decreasing in numbers, from sickness and exposure at that season, and the term of service of the volunteers would soon expire; while many of the militia had displayed a spirit of insubordination, or a disposition to desert.

The public opinion, however, as generally expressed at the time, was against the propriety of this officer's conduct. His boastful and inflated addresses tended, probably, in a great measure, by the contrast they afforded with his actions, to produce this sentiment; and the severe language in which he had spoken of his predecessors was retorted upon him by those who were as little inclined to judge charitably of his own military feats.

The troops whose attempts we have just narrated were denominated "the army of the centre," to distinguish them from the Western force, and the "Northern army." No operation of any importance was undertaken by the last during this season. A large body of regulars had been collected during the summer and autumn, which were concentrated at Plattsburg, at the close of October. General Dearborn, who commanded, had his head-quarters at Greenbush; while Generals Bloomfield and Chandler were at the head of brigades. At length, on the 16th of November, the army broke up from Plattsburg, and moved toward the Canada frontier. On the 18th, it

encamped at Champlain, within a short distance of the lines; and, on the succeeding day, General Dearborn took the command. On the same day, Colonel Pike, an officer of great merit, advanced with his regiment several miles into the enemy's country; surprised a body of British and Indians; destroyed a considerable quantity of public stores, and returned without much loss. It was now expected that the whole army would advance into Canada; but, probably from the lateness of the season, and the failure of the attempts on the borders of Lakes Erie and Ontario, the enterprise was abandoned; and, on the 23d, the troops returned to Plattsburg, at which place and its vicinity they went into winter quarters.

In the mean time, some attempts at negotiation between the belligerent governments completely failed. In the United States, the warmth of party feeling had greatly increased, and in the Eastern States, the Federalists refused to contribute any thing toward the prosecution of the war. In the latter part of 1812, the presidential election occurred; when the war was shown to be popular by the re-election of Mr. Madison by a large majority. Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was chosen vice-president. George Clinton, the preceding vice-president, had died before his term of service had expired.

A new army under General Harrison, had been called out in the North-west. With the scattered and irregular force of which it was chiefly composed, to carry on offensive operations through a swampy and intricate wilderness, was a task which, even at the most favourable season, would require all the varied talents of this general to execute. When the duty of attempting the recapture of Detroit was devolved upon him, the autumn had already commenced; and his arrangements were undertaken at the very season "the prudent caution of President Washington had directed the army of General Wayne to be placed in winter quarters."

The command of Lake Erie, prior to any offensive operations against the enemy's territory, appears to have been considered by General Harrison, as it was by General Hull, an object of the first importance, which ought to have claimed an earlier share of attention.

The total amount of the force under the command of General Harrison was estimated at ten thousand men. From the extreme rigour of the season, however, it was supposed that the whole effective force on the frontier did not exceed six thousand three hundred, which appear to have been entirely infantry. Having communicated to the administration his ideas on the subject of the future operations of his army, he received from the war department powers to prosecute the campaign in conformity with his own views, with an assurance

that the government was determined to make the most vigorous and active exertions to obtain command of the lake, which they expected to accomplish at an early period in the ensuing spring. In answer to this despatch, General Harrison stated, that, believing it to be the wish of the government to regain the lost ground, as well as to conquer Upper Canada, he did not consider himself authorized to adopt another alternative; and that the silence of the war department on the subject of the enormous expense which would attend the operations of the army, led him to conclude that it would be disregarded.

The plan now laid down was similar to the one heretofore adopted: to occupy the Rapids of the Miami; to collect provisions there; to move from thence with a select detachment; and, making a feint upon Detroit, to pass the strait upon the ice, and invest Malden. The force he proposed to assemble at the Rapids was from four thousand five hundred to five thousand men. This body, as we have stated, was to proceed in three divisions from Fort Defiance, Fort McArthur, and Upper Sandusky. To the latter place General Harrison proceeded, soon after the 8th of January, where he found the Virginia and Pennsylvania brigades, making his effective force there about fifteen hundred men; and a large quantity of artillery, with the necessary munitions of war, soon after arrived. From this place he despatched orders to General Winchester, whom we left at Fort Defiance, to advance to the Rapids, as soon as he had accumulated provisions for twenty days. He was directed to commence there the building of huts, with a view of inducing the enemy to believe he was going into winter quarters; and to construct sleds for the expedition against Malden.

Having received a supply of provisions and clothing, and provided for the sick, General Winchester commenced his march, in conformity with his directions, on the 30th of December. The progress of his army was necessarily very slow; and while performing it, General Winchester received a despatch from the commander-in-chief, (founded upon some information of the extent of the Indian force on the Wabash,) recommending to him to abandon the forward movement and fall back to Fort Jennings. He did not, however, think himself required to discontinue his march; and arrived at the Rapids on the 10th of January, where he immediately formed a fortified camp, on an eminence surrounded by prairies.

On the 11th, a despatch, directed to Fort McArthur, was sent to apprize General Harrison of the arrival of the detachment at the Rapids; and, on the succeeding day, another was sent to Lower

Sandusky, both of which were delayed several days beyond the expected time.

Information was received, on the 13th, which was corroborated on the following day, that the Indians had threatened to burn the town at the river Raisin, and massacre the inhabitants. Their force was stated not to exceed two hundred, with two companies of Canadian militia. The utmost anxiety prevailing in the army to advance to that place, a council of officers was called, a majority of whom were decidedly in favour of sending on a strong detachment.

Accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, Colonel Lewis was detached, with five hundred and fifty men, to the river Raisin; and, a few hours afterward, he was reinforced by Colonel Allen, with upward of one hundred men. On the march, the commander learned that there were about five hundred Indians at Frenchtown, and that Colonel Elliott was expected from Malden, with a force destined to attack the camp at the Rapids. He resolved, therefore, to gain possession of Frenchtown, previous to the arrival of Colonel Elliott. When he approached within a few miles of the town, he was discovered by a party of the enemy, who hastened to give the alarm. The troops were formed in line of battle when they arrived within a quarter of a mile of the village, and a general charge was immediately made upon them. The enemy were dislodged from the houses and picketing, with great gallantry, by Majors Graves and Madison, and falling in with Colonel Allen's command on the right, a warm contest ensued, which ended in their repulse; and they were pursued by the troops about two miles.

The detachment appears to have behaved with great bravery on the occasion; its loss was twelve killed and fifty-four wounded. The enemy, who were commanded by Major Reynolds, of the British regulars, were supposed to have consisted of about one hundred whites and four hundred Indians: their loss was not known: fifteen were found dead where the action commenced. Colonel Lewis resolved on holding the place, and immediately sent off expresses to Generals Harrison and Winchester.

The former officer had, unfortunately, not received the despatch of General Winchester, announcing his intended march to the Rapids, until the 11th of January. No further intelligence was received until the 16th, when he was informed, through another channel, of the arrival of the detachment at that place, and of the contemplated movement in advance. Alarmed at this information, he immediately gave orders for the movement of the artillery, accompanied by a guard of three hundred men, to the Rapids. Owing,

however, to the extreme badness of the roads, little progress could be made. He himself immediately set out for Lower Sandusky, where he found that General Perkins had prepared a battalion, with a piece of artillery, to reinforce General Winchester. Having received information of Colonel Lewis's success at the river Raisin, he determined to proceed to the Rapids immediately, and ordered the remainder of General Perkins's brigade to follow him to the same place. On the morning of the 20th, he arrived at General Winchester's camp, and found that he had gone, the preceding evening, to the river Raisin, leaving behind him a force of about three hundred men.

The news of Colonel Lewis's success had excited a great desire at the Rapids to proceed to his support. It was feared that an attempt would be made by the British to regain the lost ground, Malden being but eighteen miles distant.

On the night of the 20th, General Winchester arrived at Frenchtown, with about two hundred and fifty men, and encamped in an open lot, on the right of Colonel Lewis's detachment, which was protected in its encampment by some close garden pickets. On the 21st, Colonel Allen left Frenchtown for the Rapids; and a place was selected for a fortified camp for the whole detachment, which it was intended they should commence on the ensuing day. But another kind of labour, alas! awaited them; and men eminent for valour, and virtue, and patriotism, were doomed to fertilize with their blood, and to whiten with their bones, the sterile soil of which they vainly hoped they had become masters.

Late in the evening of the 21st, information was given to General Winchester, by a person who had recently left Malden, that a large force of British and Indians was about to march from that place, shortly after his departure. Unfortunately, however, little attention appears to have been given to the report; and the most fatal security prevailed among both officers and men, unsuspicious of the tragedy about to follow.

A most striking proof of the want of proper preparation on the part of the American commander, is evinced by the fact that no picket-guard was placed at night on the road by which the enemy was to be expected. The latter had thus been enabled to approach very near to the camp without discovery, and to station their cannon behind a small ravine, which ran across the open fields on the right. Soon after daylight on the 22d, they opened a heavy fire from their artillery, at the distance of three hundred yards. The American troops were immediately formed, and received a charge from the

British regulars, and a general fire of small arms. The detachment under Colonel Lewis, being defended by pickets, soon repulsed the enemy; but the reinforcement which had arrived with General Winchester were overpowered; and not being able to rally behind a fence, as directed by the general, were thrown into complete confusion, and retreated in disorder across the river.

All attempts to rally this unfortunate body, although made in various places by General Winchester and Colonels Lewis and Allen, proved in vain. They endeavoured, as the Indians had gained their left flank and rear, to make their escape through a long lane, on both sides of which the savages were stationed, by whom they were shot down in every direction. Their officers also, carried in this general tide of flight, attempted to escape, only, in most instances, to be massacred. Colonel Allen, and Captains Simpson and Mead, were killed on the field, or in the flight; and General Winchester, with Colonel Lewis, were captured a short distance from the village.

That part of the American force, however, which had been stationed behind the picketing, maintained their post with undiminished bravery. About ten o'clock, the British commander drew off his forces, with the apparent intention of abandoning the conflict; but, finding that General Winchester was his prisoner, he represented to him that nothing but an immediate surrender could save the rest of the Americans from massacre by the Indians. Influenced by this appeal, the general consented to issue the order, which was conveyed to the detachment by a flag of truce. Finding that the force opposed to them was far superior in numbers, that there was no possibility of a retreat, and that their ammunition was nearly exhausted, Major Madison, who commanded, consented to surrender, on condition of being protected by a guard, and that the sick and wounded should be sent, on the succeeding morning, to Amherstburg. Colonel Proctor, the British commander, having promised the American officers that their wounded should be removed the succeeding day, marched, about twelve o'clock, with his prisoners, leaving Major Reynolds, with two or three interpreters.

The unfortunate soldiers, who had been thus left, wounded and helpless, in the power of their enemy, had a right to expect that, at least, the common duties of humanity would be exercised toward them. But the most horrible act of this sanguinary tragedy was yet to be performed. Charity induces us to hope that the tales which innumerable eye-witnesses and sufferers have related of the barbarities that ensued, have been heightened by the colouring with which it was natural to invest them. Making all due allowance,

however, on this ground, enough remains to satisfy the mind that the cruelties perpetrated on this occasion were as shocking to human nature as any which history, fruitful as it is of the crimes of man, has ever recorded.

General Harrison, who had arrived at the Rapids on the 20th, a few hours after General Winchester had left that place, immediately despatched an order to the latter, to "maintain the position at Frenchtown, at any rate." On the evening of the succeeding day, a regiment of General Perkins's brigade, and the remaining Kentucky troops, under General Payne, were ordered to Frenchtown, for which place they left the Rapids on the morning of the 22d. At ten A. M. on that day, the news of the attack on General Winchester's camp was received, and the whole body was hastened on, accompanied by General Perkins in person. On the road, they learned the melancholy intelligence of the total and irretrievable defeat of the detachment. No choice was then left but a return to the Rapids, which was accomplished without loss.

The disaster which had befallen the *elite* of the army at Frenchtown, gave a decisive blow to the operations of the campaign. The force that remained at the Rapids consisting of only about nine hundred men and a single piece of artillery, it was decided by a council of war, convened by General Harrison, that it would be expedient to fall back on their resources. Accordingly, on the succeeding day, the block-house, with a quantity of provisions, having been set on fire, the remains of the army retired as far as Portage river, about eighteen miles distant, where the camp was strongly fortified. Here they remained until the 1st of February, when a reinforcement, under General Leftwich having arrived, which increased his force to about seventeen hundred men, General Harrison returned to the post of the Rapids, and encamped on the south-east side of the river, at a spot which he deemed more suitable than that occupied by General Winchester.

The attention of General Harrison was now turned toward the fortifying of his position, which service was intrusted to Captain Wood, of the corps of engineers. The force, which remained at the Rapids consisted of about seventeen hundred men, and was vigorously employed in this important operation. The camp was about two thousand five hundred yards in circumference, the whole of which, with the exception of several intervals left for batteries and block-houses, was to be picketed with timber fifteen feet long, from ten to twelve inches in diameter, and set three feet in the ground. The position thus fortified was denominated Fort Meigs.

The period of service of the Kentucky and Ohio troops was now drawing to a close; and, notwithstanding a liberal pecuniary offer from the legislatures of those States, they generally testified an intention to return to their homes, though they expressed, at the same time, a willingness to advance against the enemy, if their commander should think proper to lead them. An additional draft of three thousand men was therefore made, by virtue of an act of the legislature of Kentucky, which was organized into four regiments, under Colonels Boswell, Dudley, Cox, and Caldwell, the whole commanded by Brigadier-general Green Clay. The two former were directed to assemble at Newport on the 1st of April. On the 1st of March, the whole that remained of the preceding draft from Kentucky and Ohio had been honourably discharged.

Small parties of the enemy had been seen at various times hovering around the camp: and on the 28th of April, the whole force, composed of British and Indians, was discovered approaching within a few miles of the fort, and as soon as their ordnance was landed, it was completely invested. The ground in its vicinity had been covered by a forest, which was cleared to a distance of about three hundred yards from the lines. From behind the stumps of the trees, however, which remained, the Indians kept up a severe fire, by which some execution was occasionally done. On the 1st of May, the British batteries being completed, a heavy cannonading commenced, which was continued till late at night. The intervening time had not been spent in idleness by the garrison under the direction of Captain Wood. A grand traverse, twelve feet high, upon a base of twenty feet, and three hundred yards long, had been completed, which concealed and protected the whole army. The fire of the enemy, therefore, produced little effect, except the death of Major Stoddard, of the regular army, an officer of great merit. Disappointed in his first plan of attack, Colonel Proctor transferred his guns to the opposite side of the river, and opened a fire upon the centre and flanks of the camp. The cannonading of the enemy continued, for several days, incessant and powerful; that of the Americans, however, produced greater execution: but a scarcity of ammunition compelled them to economize their fire.

In the mean time, a reinforcement of twelve hundred Kentuckians, under General Clay, was descending the river, with the hope of being able to penetrate into the fort. As soon as General Harrison heard of their approach, he determined to make a sally against the enemy on his arrival; and sent an officer, with directions to General Clay, to land about eight hundred men, from his brigade, about a

mile above the camp. They were then directed to storm the British batteries on the left bank, to spike the cannon, and cross to the fort. The remainder of the men were to land on the right side, and fight their way into the camp, through the Indians. During this operation, General Harrison intended to send a party from the fort to destroy the batteries on the south side.

In conformity with this direction, a body of men, under Colonel Dudley, were landed in good order, at the place of destination. They were divided into three columns, when within half a mile of the British batteries, which it was intended to surround. Unfortunately, no orders appear to have been given by the commanding officer, and the utmost latitude was in consequence taken by the troops. The left column, being in advance, rushed upon the batteries, and carried them without opposition, there being only a few artillerymen on the spot. Instead, however, of spiking the cannon, or destroying the carriages, the whole body either loitered in fatal security in the neighbourhood, or, with their colonel, were engaged in an irregular and imprudent contest with a small party of Indians. The orders and entreaties of General Harrison were in vain; and the consequences were such as might have been foreseen, had the commanding officer possessed the slightest portion of military knowledge. The fugitive artillerists returned, with a reinforcement from the British camp, which was two miles below. A retreat was commenced, in disorder by the Americans, most of whom were captured by the British or Indians, or were killed in the pursuit. Among the latter was Colonel Dudley. About two hundred escaped into the fort: and thus this respectable body of men, who, if properly disciplined and commanded, might have defeated the operations of the enemy, became the victims of their own imprudence.

The remainder of General Clay's command were not much more successful. Their landing was impeded by the Indians, whom they routed, and, with their characteristic impetuosity, pursued to too great a distance. General Harrison perceiving a large force of the enemy advancing, sent to recall the victors from the pursuit. The retreat was, however, not effected without considerable loss, the Indians having rallied, and, in turn, pursued them for some distance. The sortie, however, made by a detachment under Colonel Miller, of the regulars, gained for those who participated in it much more reputation. The party, consisting of about three hundred and fifty men, advanced to the British batteries with the most determined bravery, and succeeded in spiking the cannon, driving back their opponents, who were supposed to be double in number, and capturing

forty prisoners. The enemy suffered severely; but rallied, and pressed upon the detachment until it reached the breastwork. The attempt to raise the siege was thus defeated, from the imprudence and insubordination of the troops concerned, rather than from any original defect in the plan. Many valuable lives were lost during the heat of the battle: and the cruelties perpetrated upon the prisoners, in presence of the officers of the British army, are said to have been little inferior in atrocity to those of the bloody day of Frenchtown.

From this period until the 9th, little of importance occurred. The British commander, finding he could make no impression upon the fort with his batteries, and being deserted in a great measure by his Indian allies, who became weary of the length of the siege, resolved upon a retreat. After several days' preparation, his whole force was embarked on the 9th; and was soon out of sight of the garrison, with little molestation on their part.

The spring of the year 1813 had far advanced, before any events of national importance occurred on the Northern frontier.

The partisan warfare was principally conducted by Major Forsyth, of the rifle regiment, a very valuable and enterprising officer. In the month of February, he resolved, in retaliation for an incursion of the enemy, to attempt a post not far distant from Ogdensburg, where he commanded. Accordingly, with a party of riflemen, and some volunteers, he crossed the St. Lawrence; surprised a guard at Elizabethtown; captured fifty-two prisoners, including six officers, besides a large quantity of military stores; and returned without the loss of a man. By way of revenge for this exploit, a large British force was assembled for an attack on Ogdensburg. Colonel Benedict, who commanded the militia of the vicinity, hastily called out his regiment to the aid of Major Forsyth, whose force was far inferior to that of the enemy. On the 21st of February, they attacked the town, in two columns of six hundred men each; and, after a sharp contest of an hour's duration, succeeded in driving the American troops out of it, with the loss on the part of the latter, of about twenty killed and wounded: that of the enemy was supposed to be far greater, from the known skill of the riflemen. After sacking the place, they retired on the same day, carrying with them some valuable articles.

A concentration of a large portion of the regular army, with a view to some important operation, was effected about the middle of April, at Sackett's Harbour. This post, which acquired so much celebrity during the war, and which, in the course of a few months,

emerged from the quiet and gloom of a forest, to become the scene of the bustle and hostility of civilized man, is situated at the east end of Lake Ontario, about sixteen miles from the St. Lawrence. From its position, it had been found peculiarly adapted for a military depot, as well as for the purposes of commerce, and the protection of armed vessels. The squadron, which cruised on the lake, was accordingly prepared here; and at this period was assembled for the conveyance of the troops to the Canada shore, as soon as the ice would admit of naval operations.

The land forces were under the immediate command of Major-general Dearborn, who now determined to make an attack, in the first instance, upon the town of York, the capital of Upper Canada, and a place of great importance to the enemy. The navigation of the lake being ascertained to be unimpeded by ice, the troops destined for the expedition, to the number of about seventeen hundred, embarked on board the squadron, and left Sackett's Harbour on the 25th of April. On the 27th, they arrived off their place of destination, and at eight in the morning the landing was commenced, at a spot distant about a mile and a half from the enemy's works. In consequence of the state of the wind, the troops were not able to debark at the place originally intended; and the enemy was enabled to collect, at the point where the landing took place, his whole force, which consisted of seven hundred regulars and militia, and one hundred Indians. Major Forsyth, with his riflemen, were the first to gain the shore; and, after a severe contest for nearly half an hour, succeeded in repulsing the enemy, with a very inferior force. General Pike now landed; and, pushing on with a small party, drove the enemy before him, who rallied, however, and returned to the attack; but were again repulsed, and retreated to their works. The whole body was by this time formed on the shore, and arranged in the order contemplated for the attack. Led by their gallant commander, the column pressed forward with the utmost regularity; and, after receiving a heavy fire from one of the enemy's batteries, which they carried by assault, were moving toward the main works, when a sudden and tremendous explosion took place from the enemy's magazine, which hurled upon the advancing troops immense masses of stone and timber; and, for a short time, checked their progress, by the havoc it made in their ranks. Numbers were immediately killed or disabled by the contusions: among the latter was their deservedly lamented commander, General Pike, who survived but a few hours. The direction of the troops then devolved upon the senior officer, Colonel Pearce, General Dearborn having remained on board one of

the vessels of the squadron. The enemy's regular troops had now retreated, leaving the defence of the place to the militia. At five o'clock, the Americans took possession of the town, having arranged articles of capitulation with the commanding officer. The land and naval forces of all descriptions were surrendered prisoners of war, and all public stores given up. Private property was guaranteed, and scrupulously respected. A large vessel of war, which was building, and nearly finished, was set on fire by the enemy, previous to their retreat. The prisoners taken amounted to forty officers, and two hundred and fifty-one non-commissioned officers and privates, the greater part of whom were militia. The loss of the enemy was estimated by General Dearborn at one hundred killed, and three hundred wounded, independent of prisoners.

The capture of Fort George being the next object in view, the troops, to the number of about four thousand, under Generals Dearborn and Lewis, were embarked on board the vessels for that purpose. The squadron anchored within musket-shot of the shore; and a heavy fire commenced, by which the enemy's batteries were silenced in ten minutes. The troops proceeded to the beach in three brigades, the advance being commanded by Colonel Scott, who landed under a heavy fire from the British forces. The first, second, and third brigades having reached the shore in their order, the enemy soon gave way, and retreated with precipitation to the fort, which, however, having become untenable, from the fire of the American batteries, they abandoned it, on the approach of the advance of General Boyd's brigade, and dispersed in various directions. Previously to the retreat, they attempted to set fire to the magazines, but were frustrated by the energy and skill of the American officers. They were pursued several miles by the light troops; but, in consequence of the severe fatigue of the latter, they were recalled. The conduct of the American force was such as to obtain for it the highest encomiums. General Boyd, Colonels Scott and Porter, Major Armistead, and Lieutenant Totten, were particularly noticed in the official report. The army had, indeed, manifestly improved in discipline, the only qualification wanting to place them on a perfect equality with their enemy. The loss of the British was much greater than that of the Americans. One hundred and eighty of the former were killed, and one hundred and sixty wounded, who, together with one hundred and fifteen regulars, and five hundred militia, became prisoners. The latter had thirty-nine killed and one hundred and ten wounded. Lieutenant Hobart, of the first brigade, was the only officer killed.

After this engagement, the British force, under General Vincent, retired to a spot called the Beaver Dams, where it was joined by a reinforcement from Fort Erie and Chippewa. General Winder was therefore despatched with his brigade from Fort George, on the 1st day of June, for the purpose of cutting off the retreat of this body. Finding that the enemy had been reinforced, and that his troops, now amounting to about fifteen hundred men, had taken a position on the heights, at the head of Burlington bay, General Chandler was sent forward with his brigade: and the two detachments being united, the latter or senior officer took the command. On the 5th, the detachment advanced to Stony creek, in the vicinity of the British force, and then encamped on its bank. The usual precautions, in the positions of the different corps, and of the artillery, appear to have been taken. An advanced guard, of about eighty men, was posted in a wooden house, about a quarter of a mile in front. A strong detachment occupied a hill on the left, which commanded a road running through the centre of the camp. In this position, the enemy, whose situation had become precarious, determined upon a night attack, as the only means of saving his army. The scheme was well conceived, and in a great measure succeeded. At two o'clock in the morning of the 6th the attack was made by a column of about seven hundred regulars, after having bayoneted the sentinels in advance, and passed by the guard in front without notice. The twenty-fifth regiment had occupied the ground on the opposite side of the creek, for the purpose of cooking; but, leaving their fires burning, had withdrawn to the encampment about midnight, and lay upon their arms. Toward these fires the enemy advanced, raising a shout, in the belief that the American troops were behind them. This outcry fortunately roused the camp, and the twenty-fifth regiment commenced a fire upon the column, which was now discerned by the light of the fires on the opposite bank. The American line was soon formed; but, in a short time, the firing on the part of the British ceased; and such was the darkness of the night, that it was impossible to ascertain in what direction they had moved. Profiting by this obscurity, the enemy moved silently along the road, until they arrived at the spot where the artillery was stationed, upon which they immediately made a charge, and drove the artillerymen from their cannon. In this situation they were found by General Chandler, who, advancing to the centre to give orders, was immediately taken prisoner.

The same fate unfortunately attended General Winder. Having discovered some confusion in the centre, he hastened forward to

ascertain the cause; and, in a few moments, found himself in the hands of the enemy. Satisfied with the capture of these officers, and part of the artillery, they now retreated in haste, and when the day dawned, were out of sight. Although they partially succeeded in surprising the American camp, the consequences, had they been properly pursued, would have been highly disastrous to them. The capture of the two commanders, and of four pieces of cannon, gave the affair the appearance of a victory, which was enhanced by the retreat of the American army on the next day ten miles from the field of battle. The enemy, however, suffered severely from the fire of the artillery in the latter part of the engagement, and lost one hundred prisoners, chiefly of the forty-ninth regiment. Of the Americans, one hundred and fifty-four were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners.

On the 7th, the detachment which had fallen back to the Forty-mile Creek, was joined by a reinforcement of the sixth and fifteenth regiments, under Colonel Miller; and the command was now taken by Major-general Lewis. On the succeeding day, the British squadron, under Sir James Yeo, appeared opposite to the encampment, which had its right flank on the lake, and anchored within a mile of the shore. He attempted to burn the boats by which the baggage of the army was transported; but was received so warmly, by a battery constructed by Captains Archer and Towson, that he at length desisted. A party of Indians now appeared on the left of the camp, and were soon dislodged by a detachment of the thirteenth regiment. Sir James Yeo, finding that he could make no impression upon the camp by this display, sent in a flag, demanding the surrender of the army. No reply was deemed necessary: and, in consequence of orders from General Dearborn, the army began its retreat to Fort George. The baggage and camp equipage were placed in the boats, twelve of which, unfortunately, were taken by an armed vessel of the enemy. The march of the army was harassed by the hostile Indians, until its arrival within a short distance of Fort George.

Soon after this event, a body of the enemy having been collected at the Beaver Dams, about eight miles from Queenstown, and seventeen from Fort George, Lieutenant-colonel Bœrstler was detached with about five hundred men, with directions to attack and disperse them. He had proceeded about nine miles west of Queenstown, when he was assailed from the adjoining woods by a large party of Indians. The infantry succeeded in dispersing them; but they only retired to make the attack in another quarter. In the mean time, a reinforcement of British regulars had arrived, and the detachment was

compelled to retreat until they had gained an open ground. Here, Colonel Bœrstler determined to make a stand, and despatched an express for a reinforcement. The enemy, however, continued to press on in considerable numbers. The Americans were forced to close column for the purpose of forcing their way, and continued the action until the ammunition of the artillery had been expended. In this situation, the enemy demanded their surrender; and Colonel Bœrstler, finding himself surrounded by Indians, regulars, and militia, resolved, on consultation with his officers, to capitulate. The troops were surrendered prisoners of war; and the humiliating condition of laying down their arms at the head of the British column was prescribed. Much ill-treatment was experienced from the Indians by the unfortunate prisoners. Contrary to the articles of capitulation, the officers were plundered of their side-arms, and the soldiers of many of the most necessary articles of clothing. The loss sustained during the action is not known.

While the greater part of the American army was thus occupied on the Canada frontier, the opportunity was seized by the enemy to make an attack upon the important post of Sackett's Harbour. At the departure of General Dearborn for York, he gave the command to Brigadier-general Brown, of the New York militia, although his term of service had expired. On the 27th of May, the enemy's squadron was discovered by Lieutenant Chauncey; and notice being given at Sackett's Harbour, alarm-guns were fired for the purpose of bringing in the militia of the vicinity. By these and other means, a force of about one thousand men was collected, consisting of regulars, seamen, volunteers, and militia, the latter composing one-half of the amount. With this body, General Brown made all the arrangements for defence which the shortness of the time would allow. The militia and volunteers, under Colonel Mills, were posted behind a breastwork, hastily thrown up on a peninsula, at which it was supposed the enemy would land. The regulars, under Colonel Backus, formed a second line; and Lieutenant Chauncey, with some seamen, was stationed at the Navy Point, with directions to destroy the buildings and stores, in case of the defeat of these troops. On the morning of the 29th, the enemy landed his whole force, which consisted of one thousand picked men, under Sir George Prevost, after a heavy fire from the battery on the peninsula, which occasioned some loss. This fire was, however, all the defence that the militia attempted. As soon as the enemy began to approach, they were seized by one of those panics to which all raw troops are subject, and fled in haste and confusion. Colonel Mills, their com-

mander, in vain endeavoured to rally them; in the attempt, he was mortally wounded. The enemy, having thus easily surmounted the first opposition, advanced toward the village, though checked for a time by a bold attack from a small party under Major Aspinwall, who were, however, soon compelled to retreat. About one hundred of the militia, rallied by General Brown, annoyed the enemy's left flanks; and the regulars, under Colonel Backus, having also engaged him, a sharp conflict ensued. The Americans were at length compelled, by the force of numbers, to retire. In their retreat, they took possession of the houses in the vicinity, and poured upon the British column so destructive a fire, that it was found expedient to fall back. Perceiving the hesitation on the part of the enemy, General Brown had recourse to a stratagem, which soon converted their retreat into a precipitate flight. Collecting together a number of the militia who had so ingloriously fled, he formed and marched them silently through a wood, in the direction of the enemy's rear, but so as to be observed by him. Imagining that his retreat would be cut off, the latter re-embarked so rapidly as to leave most of his wounded, and some prisoners, behind. In his flight, he was not molested by the American troops.

The capture of Sackett's Harbour, had the enemy succeeded in effecting that object, would have been productive of the most disastrous consequences to the republic. Being the most convenient place of deposit, great quantities of military stores had been accumulated there, as well as the materials for the increase of the navy upon the lake. A new frigate was at the moment upon the stocks, besides several others in the harbour. Had these fallen into the hands of the enemy, his naval superiority would have been firmly established, and any further attempts of the American troops upon Canada for a time impeded. No event, therefore, of the campaign was of more manifest advantage than the repulse of the British troops on this expedition; and the able dispositions, as well as patriotic zeal of General Brown, acquired him deserved credit. In recompense for his exertions on this occasion, he was shortly afterward appointed a brigadier in the regular army.

The repulse of the combined force of the allies from Fort Meigs, of which we have already spoken, did not deter them from a renewal of the attempt. Early in the month of July, the Indians began to infest the vicinity of that post; and occasional skirmishes took place between them and parties of the Americans. About the 20th of that month, a large body of British and Indians encamped below the fort. Information of the meditated attack was communicated to

General Harrison, by the commander, General Clay. General Harrison accordingly made preparations for his relief; but before any reinforcement arrived, the enemy had abandoned the siege. On the 28th, they embarked on board their vessels, and sailed round to Sandusky Bay, hoping to surprise the fort at that place.

Fort Stephenson, the defence of which acquired for its commander so much renown, is situated on the river Sandusky, at about twenty miles distance from lake Erie. At this period, it was little more than a picketing, surrounded by a ditch six feet in depth and nine in width; and had been considered by General Harrison as so untenable, that, previous to the attack on Fort Meigs, he had given directions to the commanding officer to retire on the approach of an enemy, and destroy the public stores. It was garrisoned by only one hundred and sixty men, regulars and volunteers, under the command of Major George Croghan.

On the 29th of July, an express reached General Harrison, with intelligence of the retreat of the enemy from Fort Meigs, and of the strong presumptions that an attack would be made upon Sandusky. He immediately called a council of war; and, by their advice, despatched an order to Major Croghan to abandon and set fire to the fort, and repair with his command to head-quarters. The express did not reach Fort Stephenson until noon on the succeeding day; and the Indians having by that time surrounded the fort, Major Croghan did not think it advisable to comply with the order.

On the 1st of August, the enemy's gun-boats appeared in sight; and their troops were shortly afterward landed, with a howitzer, about a mile below the fort. Previous to the commencement of the operations, an officer was despatched by the British commander, to demand the surrender of the garrison, to which a determined refusal was immediately returned by Major Croghan. The force of the enemy was supposed to consist of about five hundred regulars, and eight hundred Indians, the whole commanded by General Proctor. The enemy now opened a fire from the six-pounders in their gun-boats, as well as from the howitzer, which was continued during the night, with very little injury to the fort. The only piece of artillery in this post was a six-pounder, which was occasionally fired from different quarters, to impress the enemy with a belief that there were several. The fire of the assailants having been principally directed against the north-western angle of the fort, with the intention, as it was supposed, of storming it from that quarter, the six-pounder was placed in such a position as to enfilade that angle, and masked so as to be unperceived. The firing was continued during

the next day, and until late in the evening; when, the smoke and darkness favouring the attempt, the enemy advanced to the assault. Two feints were made in the direction of the southern angle; and, at the same time, a column of about three hundred and fifty proceeded to the attack of that of the north-west. When they arrived within twenty paces of this point, they were discovered, and a heavy fire of musketry opened upon them. The column, however, led by Colonel Short, continued to advance, and leaped into the ditch; but, at this moment, the embrasure was opened, and so well-directed and raking a fire was poured in upon them from the six-pounder, that their commander and many of the men were instantly killed; and the remainder made a disorderly and hasty escape. A similar fate attended the other column, commanded by Colonel Warburton. They were received, on their approach, by so heavy a fire, that they broke, and took refuge in an adjoining wood. This affair cost the enemy twenty-five privates killed, besides a lieutenant, and the leader of the column, Colonel Short. Twenty-six prisoners were taken, and the total loss, including the wounded, was supposed to be about one hundred and fifty. The scene which followed the attack reflected the greatest credit on the Americans. Numbers of the enemy's wounded were left lying in the ditch, to whom water and other necessaries were conveyed by the garrison, during the night, at the risk of their own safety. A communication was cut under the picketing, through which many were enabled to crawl into the fort, where surgical aid, and all that the most liberal generosity could dictate, was administered to them.

About three o'clock in the morning, after their repulse, the enemy commenced a precipitate retreat, leaving behind them many valuable military articles. The defence of Fort Stephenson, achieved as it was by a youth scarcely arrived at manhood, against a foe distinguished for his skill and bravery, and that too with so small means of defence at the time subsisting, was certainly one of the most brilliant achievements of the war. The news of the repulse of the enemy was received with great exultation throughout the Union. Major Croghan was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and, together with his brave companions, received the thanks of Congress.

The invasion of the State of Ohio having been communicated to Governor Meigs, he immediately called out the whole body of the militia of the State. Great numbers accordingly repaired to General Harrison's camp; but the siege of Forts Meigs and Stephenson having been raised, he was compelled to disband them, with the exception of about one thousand men. This proceeding occasioned

great discontent on the part of the volunteers, and equal regret to General Harrison.

The whole regular force of the north-western army, in the month of July, did not exceed two thousand men. On the 20th of that month, he received authority from the war department to call out such of the militia of the adjoining States as might be necessary to complete the intended army. He accordingly wrote instantly to Governor Shelby, of Kentucky, requesting a draft, not to exceed two thousand men, from that State. The latter officer, however, being of opinion that the foot soldiers could not be marched in time for the purposes of General Harrison, took upon himself the responsibility of departing somewhat from his directions. On the 31st of July, he issued a proclamation to the militia of Kentucky, calling upon them to furnish a body of mounted volunteers, to meet him at Newport, on the 31st of August, and promising to lead them himself against the enemy.

Such was the unabated ardour of this impetuous and patriotic people, that more than the number required was soon obtained. The regiment of mounted volunteers, under Colonel Johnson, which had been in a great measure disbanded, was now reorganized, and filled up with so much eagerness, that many of the companies contained more than the complement of privates allotted by law. When the recruiting was completed, the regiment was stationed in the vicinity of Dayton, where it was diligently trained by its field-officers; and new manœuvres, adapted to the species of enemy they had to contend with, were introduced and inculcated.

The remainder of the Kentucky volunteers assembled at Newport, in conformity with their orders, on the 31st of August; and, on the succeeding day, crossed the Ohio, to the number of about three thousand five hundred men. At their head was the venerable and patriotic Governor Shelby, who commanded them in chief. Under him were Major-generals Henry and Desha, five brigadiers, and eleven colonels. This formidable force arrived, on the 12th of September, at Upper Sandusky. Here the governor received directions from General Harrison, who was at the Seneca camp, to proceed immediately to Lower Sandusky with his army, in order to be in readiness for embarkation, in case of a successful issue of the conflict which it was supposed had taken place on Lake Erie.

Early in the spring of this year, the attention of the national government had been seriously directed toward the important object of the command on this lake. The earnest representations of General Harrison had awakened the administration to a proper sense of the

necessity of this measure; and great exertions were accordingly made to obtain a force competent to engage the enemy. In the month of March, two brigs and several schooners were commenced, at the port of Erie, under the directions of Captain Oliver Hazard Perry. The building of these vessels was continued with all possible rapidity, and without molestation from the enemy, until the 20th of July, when the British squadron appeared off Erie, with the apparent intention of attacking the town. The militia of the vicinity were hastily assembled, in addition to the force already provided for its defence; but the enemy soon afterward retired, without having made any attempt. On the 2d of August, the equipment of the vessels being completed, they were launched; and, on the two succeeding days, they were buoyed over the bar, at the mouth of the harbour, in face of the enemy's squadron, without any molestation on their part. The latter, finding the force of the Americans superior, returned to Malden, to await the completion of a large ship which was then building. Commodore Perry, having now received an expected reinforcement of seamen, and being joined by a company of infantry and some volunteers, acting as marines, sailed in quest of the enemy's squadron, which he found lying in the harbour of Malden, augmented by a new vessel, called the Detroit, their force being thus superior to that of the Americans. Finding the enemy, however, unwilling to venture out, the American commander returned to Put-in-bay, in Bass island.

On the morning of the 10th of September, while the squadron was lying in this harbour, the enemy's vessels were discovered standing out of the port of Malden, with the wind in their favour. The American fleet immediately weighed anchor, and fortunately got clear of the islands near the head of the lake, before the enemy approached. At ten o'clock, the wind changed, so as to give the former the weather-gage. Commodore Perry then formed his line of battle, and at a few minutes before twelve the action commenced. The fire from the enemy's long guns proving very destructive to the Lawrence, the flag-ship of the squadron, she bore up, for the purpose of closing with her opponents, and made signals to the other vessels to support her. The wind, however, being very light, and the fire of the enemy well directed, she soon became altogether unmanageable; she sustained the action, nevertheless, for upward of two hours, until all her guns were disabled, and most of the crew either killed or wounded.

In this situation of affairs, the American commodore, with singular presence of mind, and a gallantry rarely equalled, and never ex-

ceeded, resolved upon a step which decided the fortune of the day. Leaving his ship, the Lawrence, in charge of a lieutenant, he passed in an open boat, under a heavy fire of musketry, to the Niagara, which a fortunate increase of wind had enabled her commander, Captain Elliott, to bring up. The latter officer now volunteered to lead the smaller vessels into close action; while Commodore Perry, with the Niagara, bore up, and passed through the enemy's line, pouring a destructive fire into their vessels. The smaller American vessels having soon afterward got within a suitable distance, opened a well-directed fire upon their opponents; and, after a short but severe contest, the whole of the British squadron struck their colours to the republican vessels. The Lawrence, whose flag had been struck soon after the American commodore left her, had been enabled again to hoist it, previous to the conclusion of the contest, the enemy not having it in his power to take possession of her. Thus terminated an engagement which will be long memorable in the annals of the republic, both as being the first victory of a squadron of its vessels over one of an enemy, and as being among the most brilliant and decisive triumphs ever recorded in the annals of naval warfare.

The intelligence of this important victory produced, as may be supposed, sensations of the greatest joy in the camps of Governor Shelby and General Harrison. The latter immediately proceeded to Lower Sandusky, having issued orders for the movement of the troops and the military stores to the margin of the lake, preparatory to embarkation. Governor Shelby's command also reached that place on the 16th of September, after a difficult and forced march. The squadron having arrived there on the 14th, the prisoners captured in the engagement, to the number of three hundred, were landed, and soon afterward marched into the interior.

It was now resolved that the whole army, with the exception of Colonel Johnson's mounted regiment, which was to proceed from Fort Meigs by the way of Detroit, and a small body left to guard the horses, should be embarked on board the squadron, by which they were to be conveyed to the enemy's shore. From the 16th to the 26th, the troops were occupied in preparations for this movement. On the 27th, the whole army was embarked, and, at three in the afternoon, landed on the shore of Canada. The line of march was immediately formed, and in a few hours the American flag was hoisted in the town of Malden.

Immediately after receiving intelligence of the capture of his fleet, General Proctor made preparations for a retreat from his post at Malden, the information he had received of the numbers of General

Harrison's army being greatly exaggerated. Having destroyed the fort and public stores, the town was finally abandoned on the day preceding the arrival of the American army. The whole of the British force, consisting of about seven hundred regulars and one thousand Indians, independent of the militia, then retired along the rivers Detroit and Thames.

On the 28th, the American army moved forward, and, on the next day, took possession of Sandwich, without any obstruction from the enemy. The mounted regiment, under Colonel Johnson, joined the army on the 1st of October, and it was then determined by General Harrison and Governor Shelby, to pursue the enemy without delay. Leaving, therefore, a strong detachment, under General McArthur, to keep the Indians in check, the remainder marched at sunrise on the 2d, to the number of about three thousand five hundred men, consisting of about one hundred and forty regulars, Colonel Johnson's mounted regiment, and part of Governor Shelby's volunteers. On the first day, they encamped at a distance of twenty-five miles; and, early on the next, arrived at the river Thames, where a party of the enemy were captured, in the act of destroying the bridge over a creek in the vicinity. On the 4th of October, a skirmish took place between the advanced guard and a party of Indians, at the passage of the fork of the river. The latter were, however, speedily dispersed, by the arrival of the main body, with the two six-pounders. A large quantity of arms and public stores was here captured by the army. On the morning of the 5th, they marched at an early hour; and, about noon, information was received that the enemy was lying at a short distance, awaiting the attack. Colonel Johnson was then sent forward to reconnoitre, and the troops were prepared for action.

The allied army was drawn up across a narrow isthmus, covered with beech-trees, and formed by the river Thames on the left, and a swamp running parallel to the river on the right. The regulars were posted with their left on the river, supported by the artillery; while the Indians, under Tecumseh, were placed in a dense wood, with their right on a morass. In the order in which the American army was originally formed, the regulars and volunteer infantry were drawn up in three lines, in front of the British force; while the mounted volunteers were posted opposite to the Indians, with directions to turn their right flank. It was soon perceived, however, that the nature of the ground on the enemy's right would prevent this operation from being attempted with any prospect of success. General Harrison therefore determined to change his plan of attack.

Finding that the enemy's regulars were drawn up in open order, he conceived the bold idea of breaking their ranks, by a charge of part of the mounted infantry. They were accordingly formed in four columns of double files, with their right in a great measure out of the reach of the British artillery. In this order they advanced upon the enemy, receiving a fire from the British lines, from which their horses at first recoiled. Recovering themselves, however, the column continued to advance with such ardent impetuosity, that both the British lines were immediately broken. Wheeling, then, on the enemy's rear, they poured a destructive fire into his ranks; and in a few minutes the whole British force, to the number of about eight hundred men, threw down their arms, and surrendered to the first battalion of the mounted regiment, the infantry not having arrived in time to share the honour. Their commander, General Proctor, however, escaped with a small party of dragoons.

In the mean time, a more obstinate and protracted conflict had been waged with the Indians on the left. The second battalion of the mounted volunteers, under the immediate command of Colonel Johnson, having advanced to the attack, was received with a very destructive fire; and the ground being unfavourable for the operations of horse, they were dismounted, and the line again formed on foot. Here the conflict was long and sanguinary. The Indians stood their ground bravely until their great chief, Tecumseh, fell, when they broke and fled in every direction.

The trophies acquired by this victory were of the most gratifying nature. Besides a great quantity of small arms and stores, six pieces of brass artillery were captured, three of which had been taken during the Revolution, at Saratoga and Yorktown; and were part of the fruits of General Hull's surrender. The prisoners amounted to about six hundred, including twenty-five officers, and were chiefly of the forty-first regiment. Of the Americans, seven were killed and twenty-two wounded; and of the British troops, twelve were killed and twenty-two wounded. The Indians, however, suffered far more severely. The loss of thirty of their number killed was trifling, in comparison with that sustained by the death of Tecumseh, their celebrated leader. His intelligence and bravery were no less conspicuous on this occasion than in the preceding part of the war. He was seen in the thickest press of the conflict, encouraging his brethren by his personal exertions; and, at the conclusion of the contest, his body was found on the spot where he had resisted the charge of the mounted regiment. His death had inflicted a decisive stroke on the

confederacy of the savages, from which it never recovered, and deprived the British troops of a most active and efficient auxiliary.

The consequences of this victory upon the interests of the Indian tribes were soon perceived. Being cut off from their communications with the British posts in Canada, many of them sent deputations to General Harrison to sue for peace. Previous to the engagement on the Thames, an armistice had been concluded with the Ottowas and Chippewas, on condition of their raising the tomahawk against the British; and soon afterward the Miamis and Potawatamies submitted on the same terms.

The object of the expedition having been accomplished by the capture of the British army, the troops commenced their march for Detroit on the 7th. They arrived at Sandwich on the 10th, and soon afterward the Kentucky infantry returned home, and were discharged at Limestone on the 4th of November, after having received the thanks of General Harrison for their exemplary conduct during the campaign.

For a considerable period after the resignation of General Dearborn, the army of the centre lay inactive at Fort George, its commander being restricted from engaging in offensive operations. In the mean time, a new selection of officers had been made by the government, to supply the vacant commands. Major-generals Wilkinson and Hampton, both of whom had served in the war of the Revolution, were called from their stations in the Southern section of the United States to the northern frontier. To the former was given the chief command of the forces destined for the invasion of Canada, and particularly of those on the Niagara. General Hampton was assigned to the Northern army, then encamped at Plattsburg, which it was supposed would amount to about four thousand, all regular troops.

It was now determined by the administration, that the detachments on the Ontario frontier should be concentrated in one spot, with a view to active operations by a powerful force. Two objects presented themselves, as worthy of the exertions of the army. The one was the capture of Kingston, a post of equal, and indeed greater importance to the enemy, than that of Sackett's Harbour to the Americans. The other was a movement past Kingston, and down the St. Lawrence, with the design of uniting with the army under General Hampton, and marching against Montreal. It was finally resolved, that the troops should be concentrated at Sackett's Harbour, and the choice of the two plans left to the commanding general.

Having made the necessary arrangements with the government

on this subject, General Wilkinson arrived at Sackett's Harbour, on the 20th of August; and, shortly afterward, proceeded to Fort George, where he took command of the troops, amounting to about three thousand five hundred men. A considerable period was employed in collecting and equipping the scattered detachments of the army; and it was determined that they should be concentrated upon Grenadier Island, a position between Sackett's Harbour and Kingston, and contiguous to the St. Lawrence. The secretary of war having, in the mean time, arrived at Sackett's Harbour, for the purpose of superintending the operations of the campaign, the plan of attack was, after considerable deliberation, definitively settled. It was determined that the army should fall down the St. Lawrence in boats; that it should be joined by the force under General Hampton, at the most convenient point of junction, and should thence proceed to the attack of Montreal, which, at that period, was supposed to be garrisoned by a very small force. The advanced stage of the season, when the plan was undertaken, rendered it necessary that the greatest expedition should be used. Such, however, were the difficulties attending the concentration of the troops, that it was not until the 23d of October that a sufficient force was collected to justify a movement. The army, thus assembled, consisted of about seven thousand men, and was composed of a regiment of light artillery, parts of the first and second regiments of artillery, eleven regiments of infantry, and a body of riflemen. The force of the enemy, at Kingston, was supposed to amount to about four thousand men, he having collected his detachments from the peninsula, on the supposition of an attack being meditated on that place. To continue the idea, and prevent preparations being made below, General Wilkinson appointed French Creek, a post on the St. Lawrence, convenient for the attack on Kingston, as the place of rendezvous for the army. To this spot, therefore, the advance of the army, under the command of Brigadier-general Brown was despatched, with the artillery and ordnance stores. On the 1st of November, an attack was made on this body, by a squadron of the enemy's small vessels. Their fire was, however, returned with so much spirit, by a battery of three eighteen pounders, erected by Captain McPherson, that they drew off. The attack was renewed on the next day, with no better success; and, on the 3d, the rear of the army, with the commanding general, joined the advance.

Every thing being now in readiness, the whole flotilla got under way on the 5th, and proceeded down the river. On the succeeding day, it advanced to within three miles of a fort on the enemy's bank at Prescott. Here, the ammunition, and the greater part of the

men were landed, and directed to march, under cover of the night, to a bay, about two miles below Prescott, where it was to be joined by the flotilla. A heavy fog arising in the evening, an attempt was made to pass the batteries: but, a fire being opened by the enemy, the flotilla was halted until the night had further advanced, when the passage was finally effected, without any injury to the boats: and they arrived at the place of rendezvous at ten o'clock on the succeeding day. Orders were sent from this place to General Hampton, to advance with his division, to form a junction with the main body.

It began now to be perceived that the descent of the St. Lawrence could not be effected with the ease anticipated. At every narrow pass of the river, bodies of musketeers and of artillery were stationed; and intelligence was soon received, that the enemy, relieved of his fears for the safety of Kingston, had despatched a force of about fifteen hundred men, and a squadron of armed vessels, to harass the rear.

To remove the obstructions in front, Colonel Macomb was landed, with the elite corps of twelve hundred men, on the 7th; and succeeded in routing a party at a block-house, about two miles below. On the next day, the advance was reinforced by the brigade of General Brown, together with some light artillery and cavalry, and placed under the command of that officer. A long and dangerous rapid was now approached: and orders were given to Generals Brown and Boyd, the latter of whom commanded the rear guard on the Canada shore, to take the necessary precautions to prevent an attack from the enemy while in this situation. General Brown, accordingly, marched on the morning of the 10th, and was soon engaged with a party of the enemy in front, while an attack was made on the rear of the flotilla by a number of gunboats. Unable to resist the fire of these vessels with his slender boats, General Wilkinson ordered a battery of eighteen pounders to be erected, which soon obliged the enemy to retire. On the 11th, information was received from General Brown, that he had repulsed the force opposed to him, and had taken a position at the foot of the rapid. It was determined, therefore, to attempt the passage of the rapid, and orders were given to General Boyd, to commence his march with the rear detachment. At this moment, a fire was opened from the gunboats, and intelligence was received from General Boyd, that the enemy was advancing to assail him. He was immediately directed to anticipate the attack, by moving against the enemy with the whole of his detachment and endeavouring to outflank him. The action accordingly commenced by a charge upon a party of the enemy posted in a

wood, who, after a short skirmish, were driven out on their main body. The latter was advantageously posted behind the deep ravines which intersected the plain. General Covington now advanced upon the right of the enemy with his brigade, while Colonel Ripley assailed his left flank, with the twenty-first regiment, after having driven back with the bayonet a superior number opposed to him. The contest now became general throughout the line; but the unfortunate fall of General Covington, who was killed while gallantly leading his brigade to the charge, and the want of ammunition, caused that part of the American army to retire. The artillery also, having expended its ammunition, was compelled to fall back; and, in its retreat, one piece was captured by the enemy, in consequence of the difficulty of the ground over which it had to pass. After a contest of two hours, with alternate success on either side, the whole of the Americans engaged, retired, and reoccupied the ground from which the enemy had been originally driven, while the latter drew off to his camp. Soon afterward, the American infantry were embarked on board the flotilla, while the dragoons and light artillery proceeded by land to the foot of the rapid.

On the following day, the flotilla again sailed, and having passed the rapid without loss, arrived, in the course of the morning, at a place called Barnhart's, near St. Regis, where it joined the advance under General Brown. At this latter place, it was expected that the troops under General Hampton would have been found, in conformity to the orders despatched by General Wilkinson on the 6th. To the surprise and regret, however, of the army, a messenger was met here from General Hampton, conveying information, that in consequence of the state of the roads and the scantiness of his provisions, he was unable to attempt the expected movement. A council of war was immediately called, composed of the chief officers of the army, who gave it as their unanimous opinion that it would be unadvisable to make any attempt upon Montreal during that season. The army accordingly evacuated the Canadian territory, and soon afterward went into winter quarters at French Mills, a post on the Salmon river, in the vicinity of St. Regis.

In the mean time, the Northern army, under General Hampton, had not been idle, although its operations were attended with little more success than those of General Wilkinson. It was, as we have seen, part of the plan of the campaign, that a demonstration should be made toward Montreal by that division, during the movements on the Ontario frontier. Accordingly, in the month of September, General Hampton moved from Plattsburg toward the lines of Canada,

which he crossed on the 21st of October. The enemy, however, anticipating the movement, had taken every precaution against his advance, by felling timber across the roads, destroying the bridges, and devastating the country. The route of the army lay down the banks of the Chateaugay river; and, on the 22d, it succeeded in passing through the woody, and reaching the open, country. Beyond this, at the distance of seven miles, the enemy was intrenched, in force, behind a succession of wooden breastworks, having the Indians and light corps in front. From this post, it was deemed necessary to dislodge him. Colonel Purdy was therefore detached on the 25th, with the first brigade, to fall on his rear, while the remainder of the army attacked him in front. Owing to the ignorance of the guides, however, who accompanied the first brigade, it was not able to reach the point of attack, and being assailed by a party of the enemy, it effected its retreat, with considerable loss, to the main body. The second brigade, under General Izard, had, in the mean time, driven the enemy's advanced line behind its intrenchments; but, finding that Colonel Purdy's command was not able to co-operate, it also retired. The endeavour to force the enemy's line of defence having thus failed, and no advices being received of the situation of the Ontario division, it was determined by a council to be advisable to return to Chateaugay, in order to secure the communication with the United States. The army accordingly fell back on the 27th, to the Four Corners, a post within the American lines.

The contest for superiority on Lake Ontario, during the fall of this year, was, as heretofore, calculated more to exhibit the skill and seamanship than the valour of the officers. The prudent caution of the British commodore induced him to avoid a general action, the result of which might have been so disadvantageous to the interests of his country, while the efforts of Commodore Chauncey to bring on an engagement were generally crippled by the inferior sailing of his small vessels. On the 5th of October, however, after a fruitless chase of the British squadron, he succeeded in capturing five of the enemy's transport vessels, containing about three hundred officers and privates of the regular army.

After the departure of Generals Wilkinson and Boyd, from Fort George, the command of that post devolved upon Brigadier-general McClure, of the New York militia. His force, at the time, consisted almost entirely of militia, whose term of service expired in the early part of December; and, on the 10th of that month, only one hundred men were left to defend the fort: it was accordingly resolved, by the chief officers, that it was necessary to abandon the

place, it being no longer tenable. If the American officer had confined himself to the destruction of the fort and the public property of the enemy, his acts would have received the approbation of the community in general. He unfortunately, however, considered himself under the necessity of committing to the flames the peaceful and flourishing village of Newark, adjoining to the fort, and thus involving in ruin many innocent families.

On the 19th of December, at four in the morning, the enemy crossed the river in great force, and surprised the garrison of Fort Niagara. The troops, to the number of about three hundred, consisting chiefly of invalids, were massacred almost without resistance. The few who escaped the sword of the enemy, retired to a block-house, where they were soon afterward compelled to surrender. On the same day, the enemy, accompanied by a considerable force of Indians, attacked and defeated a body of militia, stationed on the heights of Lewistown; burnt the village of that name, together with that of Manchester, Youngstown, and the Indian settlement of Tuscaroras; and, having put many of the unoffending inhabitants to the sword, returned to Canada.

This scene of ruin and devastation did not, it appears, satisfy the British commander. On the 30th of the same month, a party of regulars, militia, and Indians, to the number of about seven hundred, landed at Black Rock, and proceeded to the town of Buffalo, to defend which, a body of militia, amounting to upward of twenty-five hundred, were drawn up. To the lasting disgrace of these men, however, they all, except a very small number, fled on the approach of the enemy, without firing a musket. The village was in consequence soon taken, and reduced to ashes.

At sea, the Americans continued successful during the year 1813, suffering but two defeats, while they gained a considerable number of brilliant victories. On the 29th of February, the United States ship Hornet, Captain James Lawrence, fell in with and captured the British sloop-of-war Peacock, Captain Peake. The action lasted but fifteen minutes. The Peacock sank soon after the action, carrying down thirteen of her own crew, and three of the Hornet's. Captain Lawrence was now transferred to the command of the frigate Chesapeake, then lying in Boston harbour. On the 1st of June, Captain Broke, of the British frigate Shannon, sent a challenge to Captain Lawrence. The Chesapeake was not prepared for battle, but the gallant Lawrence, considered himself bound in honour to accept the challenge. A furious engagement followed, but it was short. Captain Lawrence was mortally wounded, and nearly every officer on

board the Chesapeake was either killed or disabled. The British themselves pulled down her colours, as Lawrence to the last exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship!" The loss of the Americans in this action was seventy killed and sixty-three wounded; that of the British, twenty-four killed, and fifty-six wounded. The fate of the heroic Lawrence caused a deep sensation of grief in the United States, and he was buried at Halifax by the British with every mark of honourable distinction. Another naval disaster soon followed the loss of the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, the United States sloop-of-war Argus, Captain William Allen, which had inflicted extensive depredations upon British commerce, was captured in St. George's Channel, by the British sloop-of-war Pelican, Captain Maples. On the 4th of September, the United States brig Enterprise, Lieutenant Burrows, fell in with the British brig Boxer, Captain Blythe. In the fierce engagement which ensued, both commanders were mortally wounded. Lieutenant McCall, of the Enterprise, compelled the enemy to strike their colours. The bodies of both commanders were buried, with the honours of war, at Portland. The cruisers and privateers of the United States inflicted an immense amount of damage upon the British commerce.

In the summer of this year, a sanguinary Indian war broke out upon the frontiers of Tennessee and Georgia. Fired by the eloquence of Tecumseh, the Creeks, a powerful tribe, concerted a general plan of hostilities, under the lead of a brave and talented chief named Weatherford. On the last day of August, that chief surprised Fort Mimms, on the frontier of Georgia, and massacred every person found there. The governments of Tennessee and Georgia immediately adopted measures for a vigourous campaign against the Creeks. General Jackson was accordingly ordered to draft and assemble at Fayetteville two thousand of the militia and volunteers of his division, and Colonel Coffee was directed to proceed, with five hundred mounted men, to the frontier of the State. The former, having collected a part of his force, moved on immediately, and joined Colonel Coffee, on the 12th of October, at Ditto's landing, on the Tennessee. From this place they marched to the Ten Islands, on the Coosa, after suffering severely from the want of provisions, arising from the ill-management of the contractors. A few days afterward, General Coffee was detached, with nine hundred men, to attack and disperse a body of the enemy posted at Tallushatchee, about thirteen miles distant. Early on the succeeding morning, he arrived within a short distance of the town, and, dividing his force into two columns, completely surrounded it. The Indians, perceiving

the approach of a company of spies, sent to draw them into the field, made a furious charge, and drove them upon the main body. The latter, in their turn, compelled the enemy to fall back, and take refuge in their town, where they maintained, for a long time, a desperate conflict, neither asking nor receiving quarter, until nearly every warrior perished. The wounded survivors, and a number of women and children, were taken prisoners. One hundred and eighty-six of the enemy were killed, among whom were unfortunately some women and children, who are represented to have lost their lives in consequence of being mingled with the warriors. Of General Coffee's force, five were killed, and forty wounded. The detachment rejoined the main body on the evening of the same day.

Having received information, soon after this event, that the enemy had invested a fort of the friendly Indians, at Talladega, about thirty miles distant, General Jackson determined to proceed with his whole army to its relief. His force now consisted of twelve hundred infantry, and eight hundred mounted cavalry and gun men; and, leaving behind the sick, the wounded, and the baggage, under a sufficient guard, he commenced his march at midnight of the 7th of December, the day on which he received the information. Such was the ardour of the troops, and the skill and resolution of their commander, that, notwithstanding a detention of many hours in crossing the river, and their fatigue and want of sleep, they arrived by the evening within six miles of the enemy. At five the next morning, the march was resumed, and at seven, the army having arrived at the distance of a mile from the Indians, General Jackson made his dispositions for the attack. The advance, under General Carroll, was directed to commence the action, and, having drawn the enemy out of their post, to fall back upon the main body. The mounted men were posted on the right and left, so as to be able to surround the enemy, while a corps of reserve, of two hundred and fifty cavalry, were posted in the rear of the centre. This plan would have fully succeeded, had it not been for the defection of a part of the infantry, who fled on the first approach of the enemy. The reserve, however, having been brought up, a sharp conflict ensued, which ended in the total overthrow of the enemy. The greater part of them escaped, in consequence of the investment not being complete. Three hundred warriors were left dead on the field, and many more were killed in the pursuit. Their whole force was supposed to have exceeded one thousand. Fifteen of the Americans were killed, and eighty wounded. The friendly Indians were thus relieved from their anxiety, and the opportunity might have been

taken to follow up the blow, but for the want of provisions, and the situation of the posts in the rear. The American commander accordingly commenced his return, on the succeeding day; but, on his arrival at Fort Strother, at the Ten Islands, where a fort had been erected, he found, to his great mortification, that none of the expected supplies had arrived. In this situation, the army was soon reduced to great inconvenience: and the discontent arising therefrom broke out into an open mutiny, which it required all the firmness and decision of their commander to suppress. Their dissatisfaction, and desire to return home, were, however, too deeply fixed to be shaken, although no means were left untried to induce them to remain at their posts. The drafted militia and the volunteers, formed each a brigade. To the officers of these corps, General Jackson earnestly remonstrated against the proposed return to the settlements; and promised that, if supplies did not arrive in two days, the whole force should be allowed to return. The volunteers were, notwithstanding, inflexible: and a great part of them were accordingly marched back to Fort Deposit. The militia, on the contrary, were induced to remain; but the two days having elapsed, that body also set out for Fort Deposit. On the road, however, the supplies were met, advancing to Fort Strother; and the troops were ordered to return. Another mutiny again ensued, which was quelled by the general at the risk of his life, and they once more returned to their duty. Hardly had this body reached Fort Strother, before difficulties again arose on the part of the volunteers. Having misconceived the meaning of the act of Congress, under which they were received into the service of the United States, they claimed to be discharged on the 10th of December. To this, General Jackson opposed argument, remonstrance, and, at last was obliged to resort to force, as the only means of compelling them to the performance of their duty. Finding, however, that the discontent of this body was not to be altogether removed, he finally ordered them to be marched back to Nashville, to await the orders of the president.

While this able commander was thus contending with the turbulence of these misguided men, the Indians were suffering, in another quarter, a full measure of retribution. General Cocke, who commanded the detached militia of East Tennessee, had despatched General White, with a part of his force, against the towns of the Hillabee tribe. This unfortunate race, who had been the principal sufferers at the battle of Talladega, had applied to General Jackson for peace, offering to receive it on such terms as he should dictate. Ignorant of this proposal, General White proceeded to fulfil his in-

structions; and, having destroyed their town, and killed sixty of the warriors, he returned with about two hundred and fifty prisoners. About the same time, too, the Georgia militia, under General Floyd, obtained a signal victory over a body of the enemy, at the Autossee towns, on the Tallapoosa river. The Indians fought with a degree of bravery bordering upon desperation. The superior tactics of civilization, however, triumphed; and, after a contest of three hours' duration, the enemy fled, with the loss of about two hundred killed, among whom two of their kings were included. Eleven of the Georgians were killed, and fifty wounded.

The discontent, and insubordination of General Jackson's army were not diminished by the discharge of the volunteers. Every accession of force appears to have been animated with the same spirit, or to have caught the baneful contagion. Many of the superior officers, regardless of their stations and characters, are represented to have given countenance to, or not sufficiently restrained, the riotous conduct of their men. The term of service of the militia, too, having now expired, General Jackson was soon afterward abandoned by all but a small number, who had volunteered to remain. A reinforcement of about one thousand mounted volunteers, however, soon after arrived, who were engaged for sixty days only. They were placed under the command of General Coffee; and General Jackson resolved to lead them immediately against the enemy. They accordingly marched on the 15th of January, and at Talladega were joined by about two hundred friendly Indians. At this place, General Jackson received advices from General Floyd, of a contemplated movement of his force, and determined to advance further into the Indian country, for the purpose of making a diversion in his favour.

A considerable body of the enemy being posted at a bend of the Tallapoosa, near the mouth of a creek, called Emuckfaw, he resolved to proceed thither immediately. After a difficult march, he arrived, on the evening of the 21st, in the vicinity of the enemy, and encamped in a hollow square. Hearing from his spies that the Indians were apprized of his approach, and appeared meditating an attack, every preparation was made to receive them. At dawn the next morning, they commenced a furious onset on his left flank; and, after a warm action of half an hour, were repulsed, and driven back about two miles. General Jackson now ordered General Coffee, with four hundred men, to reconnoitre the enemy's encampment, and to attack it, if he thought it advisable.

That officer, however, finding the post too strong, returned to the

American encampment; and, shortly afterward, a part of the enemy made a feint upon the right of the army, while the main body commenced a furious assault upon the left. In the mean time, General Coffee was detached to turn their left flank. His force, which had been considerable at the outset, was reduced by the desertion of his men to about fifty, with whom, nevertheless, he succeeded in driving the enemy opposed to him into the marshes of the creek. In this situation, covered with reeds, they were secured from danger. General Coffee, therefore, retired with the hope of drawing them out. In this design, he completely succeeded: the enemy advanced from their place of retreat, and a sharp contest ensued, which continued about an hour, when a reinforcement arriving from the main body of the Americans, the Indians fled with precipitation, pursued by the victors, and perished, it is supposed, to a man.

In the mean time, the conflict on the right of the main body, had also eventuated in the success of the American arms. The enemy, posted behind logs and trees, had maintained a warm fire for some time, which was sustained by the Americans with great gallantry. A general charge was, however, soon ordered, which the Indians were unable to resist. They betook themselves to flight, and reached their fortified post with great loss.

This well-fought battle was not gained without considerable loss to the victors. The wounded required care and attention, which they could not receive in that quarter: and the provisions began to grow scarce; nor was there any prospect of a speedy supply. Influenced by these considerations, General Jackson determined to retrace his steps to the Ten Islands. Accordingly, on the succeeding morning, he commenced his march, and continued it without interruption, until evening, when he encamped on the south side of Enotichopco Creek. This stream being deep, and its banks rugged, and covered with reeds, there being also a narrow defile near the usual crossing-place, General Jackson, apprehensive of an attack in so unfavourable a situation, resolved to cross at a different ford. Having, by means of his pioneers, selected a suitable place, he moved the army in that direction, on the succeeding morning. The Indians, who had lain in the defile in great force, finding the route of the army changed, hastened to the new crossing, and arrived in time to make an attack upon a part of the rear guard, the advance and wounded having reached the opposite bank. Orders had previously been given by the commanding general for the rear guard, in case of an attack, to face about, and act as the advance, while the right and left columns should be so disposed as to cross the stream above and below, and

thus encircle the enemy. Had these orders been obeyed in the same spirit in which they were conceived, the complete destruction of the savages would have been inevitable. The rear guard, however, to the surprise and mortification of the general, precipitately fled into the creek, at the first fire, thus obstructing the passage by which the front division was to have recrossed. Not more than twenty remained to oppose the assault of the enemy; by these, however, and by the gallant conduct of a company of artillery, the conflict was still maintained. The latter hastily drew their piece of cannon to an eminence, from which they fired grape-shot with such effect, that after many ineffectual attempts to obtain possession of it, the Indians, who were now on the point of being assailed by a part of the main body, retired in confusion, and were pursued a considerable distance. Their loss, during the pursuit, was very great, while that of the Americans is represented to have been comparatively trifling. To the great exertions of the company of artillery, the success of the Americans was mainly owing. The activity and energy of General Jackson, and the exertions of General Coffee, who, though suffering under the wounds he had received in the battle of the 22d, took an active part in the engagement, were eminently conspicuous. Captain Quarles, Lieutenant Armstrong, and several others of the company of artillery, were killed or wounded in this engagement. The repulse received by the enemy prevented any further molestation of the army, which reached Fort Strother on the 27th.

In the mean time, General Floyd had been pursuing with success his separate plan of operations. On the 27th of January, before dawn, his camp was assailed with great violence by the enemy. A warm and general action ensued, which ended in the flight of the savages, with the loss of thirty-seven killed, while that of the Americans was also considerable.

Soon after the return of General Jackson to Fort Strother, the term of service of the volunteers expired, and they were discharged with honourable testimonies by their commander. To supply their places, a draft of twenty-five hundred militia was now made, for a tour of three months, and a regiment of regular infantry, six hundred strong, arrived at Fort Strother, on the 6th of February. The unfortunate want of provisions, which had heretofore crippled the operations of the army, still existed, and prevented the expected junction of the militia, at Fort Strother. Discontent again threatened to disgrace the army, and paralyze its energies; by the firmness and decision, however, of General Jackson, order was once more restored. By great exertions, he succeeded in obtaining the necessary supplies;

and, on the 14th of March, commenced another expedition against the enemy, which ended in the total overthrow and subjugation of this unfortunate nation. Having established a fort at Cedar Creek, he set out with the intention of attacking the encampment on the Tallapoosa, near New Youcka. This post, which it had been deemed most prudent to leave untouched on the former expeditions, was subsequently selected and fortified, with a degree of knowledge and skill uncommon among an uncivilized people. Surrounded almost entirely by the river, the only passage by which it was accessible was over a narrow neck of land, which had been fortified with the greatest care. A breastwork, from five to eight feet in height, formed of trunks of trees and timbers placed horizontally on each other, with only one place of entrance, and a double row of port-holes, served as the means by which this brave but deluded race hoped to resist the torrent which now threatened to overwhelm them.

The force which General Jackson brought with him to this encounter, was greater than any he had heretofore commanded. Although reduced by the detachments left behind for garrisons, it amounted to little less than three thousand men. At ten in the morning of the 27th of March, he reached the vicinity of Tohopeka. The enemy, aware of his approach, made every preparation in their power to receive him; and arrayed their force, which was supposed to amount to about one thousand men, in the best manner for defence.

General Jackson soon arranged his plan of attack. Having despatched General Coffee, at the head of the mounted infantry and friendly Indians, with directions to gain the southern bank, and encircle the bend, he drew up the remainder of his forces in front of the breastwork. The cannon, directed by Major Bradford, were posted on an eminence, about two hundred yards from the enemy's line, while the musketry was placed nearer, to take advantage of the appearance of the enemy from their works. In this situation, the army lay for some minutes. At last, the signal being made that General Coffee had reached the opposite side of the river, the troops moved forward to the charge. They advanced to the breastwork with the utmost gallantry, and were received with equal coolness. For some moments, a most destructive contest was maintained at the port-holes; at length, Major Montgomery, of the regulars, springing to the wall, called to his men to follow him. He was immediately killed; but the ardour of the troops was not restrained by his fall. They scaled the ramparts with impetuosity, and in a short time drove their opponents into the brush, with which the peninsula was covered. From this they were again forced, and retreated to the southern

bank, where they found General Coffee's command on the opposite shore. Driven now to desperation, by finding their retreat cut off, those who survived endeavoured to take refuge behind the lofty and precipitous bank of the river, from which they occasionally fired upon their conquerors. General Jackson, who saw that the victory was completely gained, sent a flag, with an interpreter, to summon them to a surrender. Either misunderstanding the nature of the proposal, or being determined to refuse quarter, they fired upon and wounded one of the party. The destruction which they appeared to seek, was now therefore accorded them. The trees and brush, in which they had concealed themselves, were set on fire, by means of torches, and they were thus exposed to the views of their assailants, by whom their numbers were soon materially thinned. This work of slaughter and misery continued until night. The few wretched survivors were enabled, by the darkness, to make their escape. In the mean time, General Coffee's detachment, by making an attack upon the village, and diverting the attention of the enemy, had contributed materially to the success of the action. This victory, which in its consequences was final and decisive, gave a death-blow to the power and hopes of the Creeks.

After this engagement, General Jackson returned with his victorious army to Fort Williams; but, determined to give his enemy no opportunity of retrieving the misfortune that had befallen him, he recommenced operations immediately afterward. On the 7th of April, he again set out for Tallapoosa, with the view of forming a junction with the Georgia troops, under Colonel Milton, and completing the subjugation of the country. On the 14th of that month, the union of the two armies was effected, and both bodies moved to a place called the Hickory Ground, where it was expected, the last final stand would be made by the Indians, or terms of submission would be agreed on. The principal chiefs of the different tribes had assembled here, and, on the approach of the army, sent a deputation to treat for peace. Among them was Weatherford, celebrated equally for his talents and cruelty, who had directed the massacre at Fort Mimms. It had been the intention of General Jackson to inflict a signal punishment upon him, if ever in his power. Struck, however, with the bold and nervous eloquence of this fearless savage, and persuaded of the sincerity of his wishes for peace, he dismissed him without injury. He shortly afterward became the instrument of restoring peace, which was concluded by the total submission of the Indians. They agreed to retire in the rear of the army, and occupy the country to the east of the Coosa, while a line of American posts

was established from Tennessee and Georgia, to the Alabama, and the power and resources of these tribes were thus effectually destroyed.

Important political movements occurred in 1813. The Czar of Russia having offered his mediation between the United States and Great Britain, the president appointed Messrs. John Quincy Adams, Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, and Jonathan Russell, commissioners to negotiate. They proceeded to Ghent, where they were met by the British commissioners, Lord Gambier, Henry Goulbourn, and William Adams.

On account of the critical state of the country, an extra session of Congress had been called, and the members assembled on the 24th of May, 1813. Their chief object was to replenish the treasury. A system of internal duties was agreed upon, and a loan of $7,500,000 was authorized. Bounties were offered for recruits to the army; but little addition was made to the naval force.

After the desolation of the Niagara frontier, in 1813, there appeared to be nothing for the parties to contend for in that quarter. No object could be obtained by a victory on either side, but the temporary occupation of a vacant territory; yet both parties seemed to have selected this as the principal theatre on which to display their military prowess in the year 1814. Lieutenant-general Drummond, governor of Upper Canada, concentrated the forces of that province at fort George, and retained the possession of Niagara. The American Generals Smyth, Hampton, Dearborn, and Wilkinson, under whose auspices the campaigns of 1812 and 1813, on the Canada border, were conducted, had retired from that field; and General Brown was appointed major-general, and, with the assistance of Brigadiers Scott and Ripley, designated to the command of the Niagara frontier. He left Sackett's Harbour in May, with a large portion of the American troops, in consequence of which the important depots at that place and its vicinity were exposed to attacks from Kingston. On his arrival at Buffalo, calculating upon the co-operation of the Ontario fleet, he determined on an attempt to expel the British from the Niagara peninsula. With this view he crossed the river on the 3d of July, published a declaration addressed to the inhabitants of Upper Canada, stating that all whom he found engaged in the service of the enemy would be treated as foes; those that remained at home, peaceably following their private occupations, would be treated as friends; public property of every description would be seized and held at the disposal of the commanding general;

that private property would be held sacred, and any plunderer who should be found violating his orders in this respect should suffer death.

On the same day he invested Fort Erie, and summoned it to surrender, allowing the commandant two hours to answer the summons. At five in the afternoon, the fort surrendered, and the prisoners, amounting to one hundred and thirty-seven, were removed to Buffalo.

On the morning of the 4th, General Scott advanced with his brigade and corps of artillery, and took a position on the Chippewa plain, half a mile in front of the village, his right resting on the river, and his front protected by a ravine. The British were encamped in force at the village. In the evening, General Brown joined him with the reserve under General Ripley, and the artillery commanded by Major Hindman. General Porter arrived the next morning, with the New York and Pennsylvania volunteers, and a number of Indians of the Six Nations. Early in the morning of the 5th, the British commenced a firing on the pickets. Captain Trott, who commanded one of them, hastily retreated, leaving one of his men wounded on the ground. General Brown instantly ordered him to retire from the army, and directed Captain Biddle to assume the command of the picket, lead it back to the ground, and bring off the wounded man; which he accomplished without loss.

At four in the afternoon, General Porter advanced, taking the woods in order to conceal his approach, and in the hope of bringing their pickets and scouting parties between his line of march and the American camp. In half an hour his advance met the light parties of the British in the woods on the left. These were driven in, and Porter, advancing near Chippewa, met the whole British force approaching in order of battle. General Scott, with his brigade and Towser's artillery, met them on the plain, in front of the American encampment, and was directly engaged in close action with the main body. General Porter's command gave way, and fled in every direction, by which Scott's left flank was entirely uncovered. Captain Harris, with his dragoons, was ordered to stop the fugitives, at the ravine, and form them in front of the camp. The reserve were now ordered up, and General Ripley passed to the woods in left of the line to gain the rear of the enemy; but, before this was effected, General Scott had compelled the British to retire.

Their whole line now fell back, and were eagerly pursued by the Americans. As soon as they reached the sloping ground descending

toward the village, their lines broke, and they regained their works in disorder. The American troops pursued until within reach of the guns from the works; when they desisted, and returned to their camp. The British left two hundred dead on the ground, ninety-four wounded, besides those in the early part of the action, who were removed back to the camp, and fourteen prisoners. The American loss was sixty killed, and two hundred and sixty-eight wounded and missing.

After the battle of Chippewa, the British retired to Fort George; and General Brown took post at Queenstown, where he remained some time, expecting reinforcements and aid from Sackett's Harbour, and calculating that with them he should be able to dislodge the British, and obtain possession of the peninsula.

On the 20th, General Brown advanced with his army toward Fort George, drove in the outposts, and encamped near the fort, in the expectation that the British would come out and give him battle. On the 22d, he returned to his former position at Queenstown; here he received a letter from General Gaines, informing him that the heavy guns and the rifle regiment, which he had ordered from Sackett's Harbour, together with the whole fleet, were blockaded in that port, and no assistance was to be expected from them. On the 24th, he fell back to Chippewa, and, on the 25th, received intelligence that the enemy, having received large reinforcements from Kingston, were advancing upon him. The first brigade, under General Scott, Towser's artillery, and all the dragoons and mounted men, were immediately put in motion on the Queenstown road.

Late in the afternoon, General Scott found himself in the presence of the whole British army drawn across Lundy's Lane, in the vicinity of the great cataract of Niagara. Undismayed, he commenced the attack with vigour, but sent information of his position to General Brown. The conflict raged with great fury. Brown arrived with reinforcements, and long after nightfall was the bloody struggle maintained. At length, Colonel Miller, under the orders of General Ripley, stormed a battery on an eminence, which was the key of the enemy's position. The battle then raged fiercely, but victory inclined to the side of the Americans, and at midnight the British retired from the conflict.

On the morning of the 26th, Generals Ripley and Porter reconnoitered the battle ground, and found there parties of the British on the same errand. Neither Americans nor British appeared disposed to renew the bloody scenes of the preceding night. In their

official reports, both claimed the victory. But considering the number and nature of American troops compared with the British, the honours of the day unquestionably belong to the former; the latter were the first to leave the field. From the reinforcements which they had recently received from Kingston, their army after the battle was evidently superior to the American; and the latter under the command of General Ripley, on the 26th, fell back to Fort Erie. General Brown retired to Buffalo, and General Scott to Batavia, to recover from their wounds.

As the Americans retired to Fort Erie, the British advanced and invested the fort, taking a position two miles distant in front, and separated from it by a wood. On the 12th of August, General Gaines detached Major Morgan with his corps, to cut off a working party of the British, engaged in clearing the woods and opening an avenue to the fort. Major Morgan was killed at the head of his detachment, and the party returned without effecting the object. The enemy succeeded in establishing their works within four hundred yards of the fort. On the evening of the 12th, they boarded and captured two schooners; and on, the morning of the 13th, commenced, and continued during the whole of that and the next day, a brisk cannonade, which was returned from the American batteries, but without any considerable effect on either side. The British, having received considerable reinforcements, were preparing for an assault. At sunset on the 14th, one of their shells lodged in a small magazine, which blew up, but without any injurious effects. It occasioned a momentary cessation of firing, and was immediately followed by a loud shout from the British troops, which was instantly answered by the Americans; and Captain Williams, amid the smoke of the explosion, renewed the contest by an animated discharge of the heavy artillery.

General Gaines, expecting an assault in the course of the night, kept his men constantly at their posts. The night was dark, and the early part of it rainy; at two o'clock in the morning, the British columns, enveloped in darkness, were distinctly heard approaching the American lines. The infantry under Major Wood, and Captain Towson's artillery opened a brisk fire upon them. The sheet of fire from this corps enabled General Gaines to discover this column of the British, fifteen hundred strong, approaching the American left. The infantry were protected by a line of loose brush representing an abattis bordering on the river. The British, in attempting to pass round this, plunged into the water breast high. The commanding-general was about to order a detachment of riflemen to support

Major Wood, but was assured by him that he could maintain his position without a reinforcement. The British columns were twice repulsed, and soon afterward fled in confusion. On the right, the lines were lighted by a brilliant discharge of musketry and cannon, which announced the approach of the centre and left columns of the enemy. The latter met the veteran ninth regiment, and Burton's and Harding's companies of volunteers, aided by a six-pounder, and were repulsed. The centre column, under Colonel Drummond, approached at the same time the most assailable points of the fort, and with scaling-ladders ascended the parapet, but were driven back with great carnage. The assault was twice repeated, and as often checked. This column, concealed by the darkness of the night, and the clouds of smoke which rolled from the cannon and musketry, then passed round the ditch, repeated their charge, reascended their ladders, and with their pikes, bayonets, and spears, fell upon the artillerists. Most of the officers, and many of the men, received deadly wounds. Lieutenant McDonough, being severely wounded, and in the power of the enemy, surrendered and demanded quarter; Colonel Drummond, refusing it, drew a pistol and shot him dead. In a moment afterward, as he was repeating the order to give no quarters, Colonel Drummond was shot through the heart. The bastion was now in the possession of the British. The battle raged with increased fury on the right; reinforcements were ordered and promptly furnished from Major Wood's corps on the left. Captain Fanning kept up a spirited and destructive fire from his artillery on the enemy as they were approaching the fort. Majors Hindman and Trimble, failing to drive the British from the bastion, with the remaining artillerists, and infantry, and Captain Birdsall's detachment of riflemen, rushed in through the gateway, to the assistance of the right wing, and made a resolute charge. A detachment, under Major Hall, was introduced over the interior of the bastion, for the purpose of charging the British who still held possession, but the narrowness of the passage, admitting only two or three abreast, prevented its accomplishment, and they were obliged to retire. At this moment, every operation was arrested by the explosion of the principal magazine, containing a large quantity of catridges and powder, in the end of a stone building adjoining the contested bastion. Whether this was the effect of accident or design, was not known. The explosion was tremendous, and its effects decisive. The British in possession of the bastion were destroyed in a moment. As soon as the tumult occasioned by that event had subsided, Captain Biddle posted a field piece so as to enfilade the exterior plan and the salient glacis.

Fanning's battery at the same time opened on the British who were now returning. In a few minutes they were all driven from the works, leaving two hundred and twenty-two killed, one hundred and seventy-four wounded on the field, and one hundred and eighty-six prisoners. To these losses are to be added those killed on the left flank by Major Wood's infantry and Towson's artillery, and floated down the Niagara, estimated in the official reports at two hundred. The American loss during the bombardment of the 13th and 14th, was nine killed, and thirty-six wounded, and in the assault of the night of the 14th, seventeen killed, fifty-six wounded, and eleven missing.

On the 2d of September, General Brown had so far recovered of his wounds as to be able to resume the command; and General Gaines was removed to Philadelphia to take charge of the defence of the Delaware, as commanding-general of the fourth military district. General Drummond's main body was encamped in a cleared field, surrounded with woods, two miles in front of Fort Erie. This position was taken in order that that part of his force which was not on duty might be out of the reach of the guns of the fort, and of the artillery at Black Rock. His infantry was formed into three brigades of twelve hundred men each; his works were advanced within four hundred yards of the right of the American lines. One of the brigades, with a detachment of artillery, was stationed at this advance, and relieved by one of the other brigades each day, and the two at the encampment were held in constant readiness to support the advance, in case of an attack. The British had completed two batteries at this position, and nearly finished a third, which threatened the fort with destruction.

On the 17th, Generals Porter and Miller led the forces that issued from the fort. There was but a brief struggle. In a few hours the British were deprived of the fruit of forty-seven days' labour, of a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and of one thousand men, which was the number of their killed, wounded, and prisoners. Of the Americans, eighty-three were killed, two hundred and sixteen wounded, and about as many missing. General Drummond now broke up his camp, and retired behind Chippewa. Soon afterward, General Brown, having received reinforcements, was in a condition to resume offensive operations. On the 20th of October, Colonel Bissell, with a detachment of one thousand men, encountered a superior force of the enemy, under the Marquis of Tweedale, near Chippewa, and compelled them to retire, with loss.

During the summer of this year, Commodore Sinclair and Major

Croghan made an attempt to recover the post of Mackinac, but were repulsed, with loss. They, however, destroyed the British establishment at St. Joseph's and the Sault St. Marie. On the 22d of October, General McArthur destroyed a large quantity of British stores, in the vicinity of Detroit, and captured one hundred and fifty of the enemy, without losing any of his own party.

Great Britain prepared to open the campaign of 1814 upon an extended scale. Her arrangements were, to send the flower of Lord Wellington's army against the United States; to invade the country from Montreal by the way of Plattsburgh and Lake Champlain, and penetrate as far as Albany; to increase her naval force at Kingston, so as to command Lake Ontario; to send a powerful reinforcement to the Niagara frontier; to augment her fleets on the American coast, so as to command the navigation, and destroy every thing American that should be found afloat; and with their navy, aided by a powerful land force, attack the most important and assailable points on the seaboard. These objects being accomplished, she could then require of the Americans, as the price of peace, an abandonment of their maritime claims, and a sacrifice of a large portion of their Western territory to her Indian allies. The British naval force was intrusted to Sir George Cochrane, vice-admiral of the red, assisted by Admirals Cockburn and Covington. Major-general Ross commanded the land forces destined to co-operate with the navy on the coast.

On the 3d of August, the whole of the Bourdeaux, and about half the Mediterranean armament, with an additional squadron then at Bermuda, composing a fleet of sixty sail, under Admiral Cochrane, with a land force of six thousand, commanded by Major General Ross, sailed from Bermuda for the Chesapeake, and entered the bay on the 10th of August. The other division of the Mediterranean armament proceeded to join Sir George Prevost in Canada. The fleet proceeded up the bay to the mouth of the Potomac, when a squadron under Commodore Gordon entered that river, and advanced toward Alexandria. The principal part of the fleet, with the land forces, continued their course to the mouth of the Patuxent, and entered the river on the 18th.

Commodore Barney's flotilla of gunboats had previously entered that river, and retired as far up as the depth of the water would admit. The British fleet proceeded up the river, and, on the 19th, commenced landing on the left bank of the Patuxent, at Benedict, forty miles from Washington. On the 20th, the troops commenced their march up the river; on the 21st, reached Nottingham;

and on the 22d, Upper Marlborough. Commodore Barney's flotilla had reached Pig Point, two miles above Marlborough, where, finding it impossible to save his gunboats, or prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy, he blew them up, and proceeded to join General Winder.

The invading army at Upper Marlborough, on the 23d, did not exceed four thousand five hundred effective men, without cavalry, baggage, wagons, or means of transportation, and with but three pieces of light artillery, drawn by men. The British remained at Upper Marlborough until the afternoon of the 23d, when they commenced their march toward Washington by the way of Bladensburg. Colonel Scott and Major Peters, with light detachments, were sent out to meet and harass the enemy, and General Stansbury was ordered to proceed with the troops under his command, on the route direct to Upper Marlborough. Colonel Scott, with his detachment, met the British about six miles in advance of the main body, and after some skirmishing retreated. The American army at the battalion old fields, were placed in a favourable attitude of defence; they remained in their position until evening, when, apprehending the approach of the enemy, they were ordered to march to Washington. The British encamped that evening three miles in front of the position which the Americans had left. The retreat of the American troops toward the city was precipitate and disorderly, believing the enemy to be in close pursuit. The secretary of state, passing through Bladensburg at twelve o'clock at night, advised General Stansbury immediately to fall upon the British rear, as he understood they were in full march to Washington. The general having been ordered by the commander-in-chief to take post at Bladensburg, and a part of his brigade having but just then arrived, was not in a situation to comply with the wishes of the secretary; and the British remaining quietly in their encampment during the night, such a movement would have been fruitless.

The retreating army halted and bivouacked for the night at the eastern branch bridge. Here General Winder, on the morning of the 24th, established his head-quarters with the main body, consisting of three thousand five hundred men, General Stansbury four miles in front, at Bladensburg, with twenty-five hundred; Colonel Minor with seven hundred in the city of Washington, endeavouring to get across to the arsenal; and General Young's brigade of five hundred, twelves miles below, on the left bank of the Potomac; making an aggregate of seven thousand two hundred men. Various reports were brought to head-quarters of the movements and inten-

tions of the British. The president and heads of department assembled at General Winder's head-quarters in the morning of the 24th. The secretary of state, upon hearing a report that the British were marching upon the city by the way of Bladensburg, proceeded to join General Stansbury, to aid him in forming a line of battle. That general, on the approach of the enemy, retired from his position in advance of Bladensburg, and occupied the ground west of the village, on the right bank of the eastern branch. Here it was at last resolved to meet the enemy, and fight the battle that was to decide the fate of the capital.

Before the second line was completely formed, the battle commenced. The Baltimore artillery fired upon and dispersed the British light troops advancing along the streets of the village. They immediately took shelter behind the buildings and trees, and presented only single objects for the artillery. The British now commenced throwing rockets, and began to concentrate their light troops at the bridge, which the American general had not taken the precaution to destroy. The riflemen and artillery now poured in a destructive fire upon this body, and cut them down in great numbers as they advanced. The British at length gained the bridge, rapidly passed it, formed, and passed steadily on, flanking to the left, and compelled the riflemen and artillery to give way. Major Pinckney was severely wounded. He exerted himself to rally his men, and succeeded in forming them at a small distance in the rear of his first position, and united with the fifth Baltimore regiment. General Stansbury continued about four hundred yards in the rear of the battery; and left this division to contend with the whole force of the enemy, until it was compelled to retire. The British then occupied the ground they had left, and continued to advance. Colonel Sterrett, with the 5th Baltimore regiment, and Captain Birch with his artillery, were ordered to advance to support the first line. The British soon took advantage of the orchard which had just been occupied by the retreating troops, and kept up a galling fire on the American line. Captain Birch now opened a cross fire with some effect. Colonel Sterrett made a prompt movement in advance, but was ordered to halt. At this time the enemy's rockets assumed a more horizontal direction, and passing near the heads of Colonel Shultz and Pragan's regiments, caused the right wing to give way; which was immediately followed by a general flight of the two regiments.

Birch's artillery and the 5th regiment remained, and continued their fire with effect. The British light troops were for a short time driven back, but immediately rallied and gained the right flank of

the fifth. This regiment, with the artillery, were then ordered to fall back and form a small distance in the rear. But, instead of retreating in order, the fifth followed the example of the other two regiments, and fled in confusion. The whole of the first line was now completely routed. Various attempts were made to rally, but without success. No movements were made by the cavalry to cover the retreat, though the open and scattered manner in which the pursuit was conducted afforded a fine opportunity for a charge by the cavalry. This line retreated upon a road which in a short distance forked into three branches, one leading to Montgomery court-house, on the Potomac, fifteen miles above Washington, one to Georgetown, and the other to the capital. General Winder endeavoured to direct the retreating forces to the city, but without success; when they came to the three branches, the greater number took the road to Montgomery court-house, as the place of the greatest safety. This exposed the artillery of Barney and Miller to the whole British force, who soon gained their rear. Both these officers were severely wounded.

Commodore Barney ordered a retreat, but the British being in his rear, he was made prisoner. As he lay wounded by the side of the fence, he beckoned to a British soldier, and directed him to call an officer. General Ross immediately rode up, and, on being informed of his character and situation, ordered his wounds to be dressed and paroled him. The second line was not entirely connected, but posted in advantageous positions in connection with, and supporting each other. The command of General Smith, including the Georgetown and city militia, and the regulars under Colonel Scott, and some other corps, still remained unbroken.

The British light troops, in the mean time advancing on the left of the road, had gained a line parallel with Smith's command, and were endeavouring to turn his flank. Colonel Brent was placed in a situation calculated to prevent this movement. The British continued their march and came within long shot of Magruder's command, who opened a partial fire upon them. At this moment the whole of the troops were ordered to fall back: after retreating about one hundred rods, they were halted and formed by their officers, when they were again ordered to retreat and form on the heights west of the turnpike-gate, and half a mile in front of the Capitol. Here Colonel Minor, with his regiment of Virginia militia, having spent the day in the city, endeavouring to get access to the arsenal for supplies for his troops, came up and joined General Smith. While in the act of forming upon these heights, General Winder arrived, and ordered the troops to retire to the Capitol in expectation

of there uniting with the first line; but these troops, excepting one company of Colonel Laval's cavalry, were not to be found on Capitol Hill.

A conference was immediately held between General Winder and the secretaries of state and war, that it would be impossible in the existing state of things to make effectual resistance against the invasion of the city, or defend the Capitol; the whole force was then ordered to quit the city, and retreat through Georgetown, to a place of safety. On receiving this order, the troops then remaining manifested the deepest regret.

In the mean time, the British advanced from Bladensburg without further opposition; and at eight o'clock in the evening, General Ross entered the city at the head of eight hundred men; having arrived on Capitol Hill, he offered terms of capitulation, which were, that the city might be ransomed for a sum of money nearly equal to the value of the public and private property it contained; and that on receiving it, the troops should retire to their ships unmolested. There being neither civil nor military authorities in the city, to whom the propositions could be made, the work of conflagration commenced. The Capitol, the president's house, the offices of the treasury, war, and navy departments, and their furniture, with several private buildings, were destroyed. The party sent to burn the president's house entered it and found in readiness the entertainment which had been ordered for the American officers. In the dining-hall the table was spread for forty guests, the sideboard furnished with the richest liquors, and in the kitchen the dishes all prepared. These uninvited guests devoured the feast with little ceremony, ungratefully set fire to the building where they had been so liberally fed, and returned to their comrades. One house from which General Ross apprehended himself to have been shot at, was burned, and all the people found in it slain. The most important public papers had been previously removed. The navy-yard, with its contents and apparatus, one frigate of the largest class on the stocks, and nearly ready to launch, and several smaller vessels, were destroyed by Commodore Tingey, under the direction of the secretary of the navy, after the capture of the city.

The British having accomplished the object of their visit, left the city on the 25th, and passed through Bladensburg at midnight, on the route to Benedict. They left their dead unburied; such of their wounded as could ride were placed on horseback; others in carts and wagons, and upward of ninety left behind. The wounded British prisoners were intrusted to the humanity of Commodore

Barney, who provided every thing for their comfort; and such as recovered were exchanged, and returned to the British. Two hundred pieces of artillery, at the arsenal and navy yard, fell into their hands, which they were unable to remove; these they spiked, knocked off the trunions, and left. Their retreat, though unmolested, was precipitate, and conducted under evident apprehensions of an attack. They reached Benedict on the 29th, and embarked on the 30th.

On Admiral Cochrane's arrival in the Chesapeake, he was joined by Admiral Cockburn's squadron of three ships of the line, several frigates and smaller ships of war, which had been pursuing the same system of plunder and rapine for several months on the counties bordering on the bay, which they had practised the preceding season. The whole fleet now consisted of sixty sail.

After the successes at Washington and Alexandria, the next and most inviting object for British cupidity was the city of Baltimore. General Ross, elated with his recent success, boasted that he would make that city his winter quarters, and that with the force under his command he could march where he pleased in Maryland. On the 10th of September, the British forces appeared ascending the bay, in a direction toward Baltimore. On the 11th, fifty sail, consisting of several ships of the line, frigates, and transports, with six thousand men, entered the mouth of the Patapsco; and, early in the morning of the 12th, commenced landing at North Point, fourteen miles below the city.

The defence was intrusted to Major-general Smith, of the Maryland militia, assisted by General Winder and all the United States troops which had been recently engaged at Washington, and supported by all the militia of Baltimore and the neighbouring country, the whole composing a force of fifteen thousand. Every citizen of Baltimore capable of bearing arms appeared in the ranks, ready to sacrifice his life in defence of the city. The point selected by General Smith, where the ultimate defence was to be made, was upon the heights three miles in advance of the city, toward the mouth of the Patapsco. Here the citizens with great labour had, under the direction of their general, erected strong fortifications. The general, with the main body, took post at this point with a heavy park of artillery. General Stricker, with the city volunteers and militia, to the number of three thousand five hundred, was posted four miles in advance, at the head of Long Log Lane, his right on the head of a branch of Bear Creek, his left on a marsh, and the artillery posted at the head of the lane. The rifle corps were stationed in low thick pines, in advance. General

Stricker was ordered, in case of an attack by a superior force, to fall back on the main body. In this position the Americans waited the approach of the enemy. The whole population of the city came out to witness the event on which their safety depended, and, on the neighbouring heights, animated their brethren in arms. The British, having completed the debarkation by seven o'clock in the morning, took up their line of march for the city. The 41st regiment in advance, followed by eight pieces of artillery, next the second brigade, then the sailors, and last the third brigade. The march of the main body was preceded by blank patroles, and reconnoitring parties. In this order they approached the American lines. General Ross, with a small reconnoitring party, half a mile in advance of the main body, was shot through the breast by a rifleman, fell into the arms of his aid-de-camp, and died in a few minutes. By this event, the command devolved on Colonel Brook, of the 44th; who, after the troops had recovered from the shock occasioned by the loss of their leader, led them on in order of battle. The advance of General Stricker, consisting of cavalry and riflemen, under Major Heath, was first met by the enemy, and after some skirmishing, fell back on the line. The main body of the British were but a short distance in rear of their advance; and, as they came up, the action immediately became general. The attack commenced by a discharge of rockets from the British, and was soon succeeded by grape, canister, and small arms from both sides. General Stricker maintained his position against a great superiority of numbers for an hour and a half, when the regiment on his left giving way, he was obliged to retire to a position in the rear, where he had stationed one regiment as a reserve. Here the troops were formed, with the reserve, and without further molestation from the British, fell back to Worthington Mills on the left, and half a mile in advance of the main body. On the night of the 12th, the British bivouacked in advance of the battle-ground; and, on the morning of the 13th, commenced their march toward the city. At ten o'clock, they appeared in front of the American lines, distant two miles on the Philadelphia road. Here they halted, pushing their advance within a mile of the works; where they had a full view of the position and defence of the Americans. They remained on this ground, reconnoitring the works, and waiting the result of the attack on Fort McHenry, until one o'clock in the morning of the 14th, when they commenced a retreat to their shipping, began their embarkation the succeeding evening, and completed it the next day.

The entrance from the Patapsco into Baltimore basin, or harbour,

is by a narrow strait, the passage of which is defended by Fort McHenry, two miles below the city. The command of this post was intrusted to Major Armistead, of the United States artillery. The garrison, before the appearance of the enemy in the Patapsco, amounted to one hundred men; on their approach, it was increased to a thousand. Two batteries to the right of the fort were erected on the river, to prevent the enemy's landing during the night, in rear of the town; the one called the City Battery, was manned by Lieutenant Webster, with a detachment of the flotilla; the other, denominated Fort Covington, by a company of sailors, under Lieutenant Newcomb. The British designed a simultaneous attack by land and water, and, while the transports were landing the troops at North Point, the ships of war proceeded toward Fort McHenry. On the 12th, sixteen ships, including five bomb-vessels, drew up in line of battle, within two and a half miles of the fort; and on the 13th at sunrise, the attack commenced from the bomb-ships at two miles distance. The regular artillerists under Captain Evans, and the volunteers under Captain Nicholson, manned the batteries in the Star Fort. Captains Banbury's, Addison's, Rodman's, Perry's, and Pennington's commands were stationed in the lower works; and the infantry under Colonel Stewart, and Major Lane, were in the outer ditch to meet the enemy at his landing, should he attempt one. The guns from the fort were unable to reach the British ships, and left the garrison exposed to a constant shower of shot and shells, without being able to do the enemy any injury. At ten o'clock, three of the bomb-ships took a nearer position, on which a brisk fire opened upon them, and compelled them to resume their former station. At one o'clock in the morning of the 14th, the British threw a considerable force above the main works, on the right near Fort Covington, and commenced throwing rockets. Twelve hundred picked men were detached with scaling-ladders, to attempt the taking of the fort by storm. As they were approaching the shore, a fire opened upon them from Fort Covington, and a six-gun battery. The fire was directed by the blaze of their rockets and the flashes of their guns. This fire continued about two hours; the landing was prevented, one of the barges sunk, and the others compelled to return. The bombardment continued with very little intermission, from sunrise on the 13th to seven o'clock on the 14th, when the squadron got under weigh, and stood down the river. Four hundred shells fell within the fort; four men were killed, and twenty-four wounded. The officers and men of the garrison did their duty; and, by their brave

and judicious conduct, the British were repulsed, and the city saved from pillage.

In the battle of the 12th, the American loss was twenty-four killed, one hundred and thirty-nine wounded, and fifty taken prisoners. The British acknowledge a loss in the same battle of thirty-five killed, and two hundred and fifty-one wounded. Their whole loss in killed, wounded, and missing in the battle, and at the attack on the fort, was estimated by the American general at six hundred. The defeat of the British in their attempt on Baltimore, was highly honourable to General Smith, who planned and conducted the operations, and to the officers and men engaged in the defence.

About the 1st of August, the powerful reinforcements which had been ordered from the armies in Spain, to Governor Prevost's aid, arrived at Quebec, and were immediately pushed up to Montreal. Large detachments passed on to Kingston and the Niagara frontiers. These demonstrations induced the order for General Izard to proceed to join General Brown with the main body. While the army were making this movement the only opportunities for their active service were lost. Their brethren at Plattsburg and Niagara were gathering laurels at the expense of much blood, while they were performing this circuitous march. Plattsburg was the principal military and naval depot for the army of the north and the flotilla on Lake Champlain, and at this period contained a large quantity of military and naval stores. The defence of this post, after the departure of General Izard, devolved on General Macomb, with fifteen hundred regulars, and the neighbouring militia to be occasionally called on, as circumstances might render necessary. The force under General Prevost, at Montreal, within five days' march of Plattsburg, at the time General Izard left that post for the Niagara frontier, was fifteen thousand men, most of them veterans of the armies of Spain. This state of things did not escape the observation of the British general. Immediately after the departure of Izard, Prevost came out with his whole force from Montreal, and took the road to Plattsburg. On the 1st of September, he established his head-quarters at Champlain, within the United States, and fifteen miles distant from the American lines. Here he issued a proclamation in the usual style of invading generals, promising peace and protection to the unoffending inhabitants who remained at home, directing the civil magistrates to continue in the discharge of their duties; and declaring that those only who were found in arms should be treated as enemies. His instructions directed him to penetrate the United States by the way of Plattsburg; with the assistance of the fleet, which it was calcu-

lated by this time would have gained the command of the lake, proceed to Ticonderoga, and from thence to Albany, or as far on the route as was compatible with the safety of his army.

In pursuance of these instructions, he advanced with slow and cautious marches toward Plattsburg. General Macomb made every exertion to impede his progress, and prepare for the threatened attack. The militia of Washington, Warren, Clinton, and Essex counties, were ordered out *en masse*. The militia and volunteers from the counties in Vermont bordering on the lake came in great numbers. The bridges on the route which the British must take, were broken up, the road abatted, and every possible impediment thrown in the way of their passage. On the 6th of September, the British advance was met at Batemantown, six miles from Plattsburg by a corps of seven hundred militia under General Mooers. After some slight skirmishing, the militia discovered the New York State dragoons, a very handsome corps in red uniforms, reconnoitring on the heights in their rear; supposing them to be British troops who were endeavouring to cut them off, they broke and fled in every direction; and, on the same day, the British advanced into Plattsburg; the right column led by Major-general Powers, supported by General Robinson, and the left by General Brisbane. The whole under command of Sir George Prevost. The American troops retired to the south side of the Saranac, took up the bridges, and made breastworks of them on the south bank, and guarded the fordways.

The village of Plattsburg is pleasantly situated on the western shore of Lake Champlain, on the margin of a bay formed by the projection of Cumberland point into the lake. At the end of this point, is a high bluff, called Cumberland Head. The Saranac river comes in from the west, passes through the village, and empties into the bay. Several bridges were erected over this river near the village; and three miles from its mouth the river was fordable. Scouting and reconnoitring parties were constantly kept out on the British flanks to harass their march and watch their motions. The American troops were posted in their works on the high grounds on the south bank of the Saranac. General Macomb employed his men constantly in strengthening these works; in order to excite emulation among them, he parcelled out different parts of the works to different corps, assuring them that the defence of that particular portion of the works on which each corps laboured should be intrusted to them.

The American fleet, under Commodore McDonough, lay at anchor in Burlington Bay, on the right flank of the American lines, and two

miles distant. Great exertions had been made by both parties to produce a superior naval force on this lake; the Americans at Otter Creek, and the British at the Isle aux Noix. On comparing their relative strength on the 11th of September, the American fleet consisted of the Saratoga, flag-ship, mounting twenty-six guns; Eagle, twenty guns; Ticonderoga, seventeen guns; Preble, seven guns; six galleys, of two guns each, twelve guns; four of one, four guns; making in the whole, eighty-six guns; and eight hundred and twenty men. The British fleet consisted of the frigate Confiance, flag-ship, mounting thirty-nine guns; Linnet, sixteen guns; Cherub, eleven guns; Finch, eleven guns; five galleys, of two guns each, ten guns; eight, of one, eight guns, making in the whole ninety-five guns; and one thousand and twenty men.

The British land forces employed themselves from the 7th to the 11th in bringing up their heavy artillery, and strengthening their works on the north bank of the Saranac. Their fortified encampment was on a ridge a little to the west of the town, their right near the river, and their left resting on the lake, one mile in the rear of the village. Having determined on a simultaneous attack by land and water, they lay in this position on the morning of the 11th waiting the approach of their fleet. At eight o'clock, the wished-for ships appeared under easy sail, moving round Cumberland Head, and were hailed with joyous acclamations. At nine, they anchored within three hundred yards of the American squadron in line of battle; the Confiance opposed to the Saratoga, the Linnet to the Eagle; thirteen British galleys to the Ticonderoga, Preble, and a division of the American galleys. The Cherub assisting the Confiance and Linnet, and the Finch aiding the galleys. In this position, the weather being perfectly clear and calm, and the bay smooth, the whole force on both sides became at once engaged. At an hour and a half after the commencement of the action, the starboard guns of the Saratoga were nearly all dismantled. The commandant ordered a stern anchor to be dropped, and the bower cable cut, by means of which the ship rounded to, and presented a fresh broadside to her enemy. The Confiance attempted the same operation and failed. This was attended with such powerful effects that she was obliged to surrender in a few minutes. The whole broadside of the Saratoga was then brought to bear on the Linnet, and in fifteen minutes she followed the example of her flag-ship. One of the British sloops struck to the Eagle; three galleys were sunk, and the rest made off; no ship in the fleet being in a condition to follow them, they escaped down the lake. There was no mast standing in either

squadron, at the close of the action, to which a sail could be attached. The Saratoga received fifty-five round shot in her hull, and the Confiance one hundred and five. The action lasted without any cessation, on a smooth sea, at close quarters, two hours and twenty minutes. In the American squadron fifty-two were killed, and fifty-eight wounded. In the British, eighty-four were killed, and one hundred and ten wounded. Among the slain was the British commandant, Commodore Downie. This engagement was in full view of both armies, and of numerous spectators collected on the heights bordering on the bay, to witness the scene. It was viewed by the inhabitants with trembling anxiety, as success on the part of the British would have opened to them an easy passage into the heart of the country, and exposed a numerous population on the borders of the lake to British ravages. When the flag of the Confiance was struck, the shores resounded with the acclamations of the American troops and citizens. The British, when they saw their fleet completely conquered, were dispirited and confounded.

At the moment of the commencement of the naval action the British, from their works on shore, opened a heavy fire of shot, shells, and rockets, upon the American lines. This was continued with little interruption until sunset, and returned with spirit and effect. At six o'clock the firing on the part of the British ceased, every battery having been silenced by the American artillery. At the commencement of the bombardment, and while the ships were engaged, three desperate efforts were made by the British to pass the Saranac for the purpose of carrying the American lines by assault. With this view, scaling ladders, fascines, and every implement necessary for the purpose, were prepared. One attempt was made to cross at the village bridge, one at the upper bridge, and one at the fordway, three miles above the works. At each point they were met at the bank by the American troops and repulsed. At the bridges the American regulars immediately drove them back. The ford was guarded by the volunteers and militia. Here a considerable body of British effected a passage, and the militia retired into the neighbouring woods, where their operations would be more effectual. A whole company of the seventy-sixth regiment was here destroyed, three lieutenants, and twenty-seven men taken, and the captain and the rest of the company killed. The residue of the British were obliged to recross the river with precipitation and considerable loss.

At dusk the British withdrew their cannon from the batteries; at nine, sent off all the artillery and baggage for which they could procure transports; and at two the following morning, the whole

army precipitately retreated, leaving their sick and wounded behind. Great quantities of provisions, tents, intrenching tools, and amunition were also left. Much was found concealed in the ponds and creeks, and buried in the ground. Their retreat was so sudden, rapid, and unexpected, that they arrived at Chazy, a distance of eight miles, before their departure was known to the American general. The light troops and militia were immediately ordered out in pursuit, but were unable to make many prisoners. Upward of three hundred deserters came in within two or three days after the action, who confirmed the account of Prevost's precipitate flight, and assisted in discovering the property they had concealed and left behind. The American loss on land, during the day, was thirty-seven killed, and eighty-two wounded and missing. General Macomb's official report estimates the British loss in land and naval forces, since their leaving Montreal, in killed, wounded, prisoners, deserters, and missing, at twenty-five hundred.

The naval operations of 1814 were, in every respect, honourable to the skill and gallantry of the Americans, although they met with considerable losses.

On the 10th of April, the sloop-of-war Peacock sailed from St. Mary's on a cruise in the Gulf of Mexico; and, on the 29th, fell in with and captured the British brig Epervier, after an action of forty-five minutes. The vessels were of equal force, each mounting eighteen guns. The Epervier had eight men killed and fifteen wounded; she had on board 120,000 dollars in specie to reward the valour of her captors. None were killed on board the Peacock, and but two wounded. She and her prize arrived safe at Savannah on the 4th of May. After a short stay in port, the Peacock proceeded to a second cruise. This was directed to the Irish Channel, and on the coast of Scotland, to intercept and break up the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland. On this ground she captured and destroyed fourteen vessels with their cargoes, estimated at seven hundred thousand dollars. After a cruise of five months, she made the harbour of New York on the 20th of October. The effects of this cruise, aided by the enterprise of the American privateers in the Irish Channel, were such, that the insurance on the coasting trade was raised from one to thirteen per cent.

On the 10th of April, the sloop-of-war Wasp, Captain Blakely, sailed from Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on a cruise to the English Channel. On the 28th of June, she fell in with the British sloop-of-war Reindeer; an action commenced at twenty minutes after three, at close quarters; the Reindeer twice attempted to board, but was

repulsed. At forty minutes past three, orders were given to board the Reindeer, which were promptly executed, and all resistance ceased. The British loss was twenty-three killed, including their commander, Captain Manners, and forty-two wounded; the Americans, five killed and twenty-one wounded. The Reindeer mounted eighteen guns, the Wasp twenty-two. After taking out the prisoners, their baggage, and such stores as would be received on board the Wasp, the Reindeer was blown up. Captain Blakely then put into L'Orient, for the purpose of repairing his ship, and obtaining supplies. Between the 1st of May and the 6th of July, he took and destroyed eight sail. On the 1st of September, he fell in with the British brig Avon; an action commenced at half-past nine in the evening, and at twelve minutes past ten the Avon surrendered. Before Captain Blakely had taken possession, another sail appeared close on board, when orders were given for immediate action. At this moment two more sail appeared standing for the Wasp, one on the lee quarter, and one astern. Orders were then given to make sail from the enemy, and the Wasp effected her escape. After leaving L'Orient, Captain Blakely made six prizes; five of which he sunk, and sent one into port. From that time the Wasp has never been heard of; she doubtless foundered at sea, and her brave crew perished.

On the 26th of September, the American privateer brig General Armstrong, Captain Reid, came to anchor in the port of Fayal, one of the Azores, a Portuguese island in the Atlantic. The same day, the Plantagenet seventy-four, and the Rota and Carnation, British ships of war, suddenly appeared in the Roads. At dark, Captain Reid warped his ship in under the guns of the fort for protection; at eight o'clock he observed four boats from the ships filled with armed men approaching him; after warning them to keep off, he fired into the boats, killed seven men, and compelled them to return. At midnight twelve large boats armed with swivels, carronades, and muskets, attacked the brig, and after a severe action of forty minutes, the contest ended in a total defeat of the party, a partial destruction of the boats, and a severe loss of men. Among the killed were the first lieutenant of the Plantagenet, the commandant of the party, and two lieutenants and one midshipman of the Rota. It was estimated by the spectators on shore, that the boats contained four hundred men, and that more than half of them were killed or wounded. Several boats were destroyed, two remained alongside of the Armstrong, loaded with their dead and dying; only seventeen from these two boats reached the shore. The British acknowledged a loss of

one hundred and twenty killed. The sloops Thais and Calypso were loaded with the wounded and sent to England. Immediately after the first attack, Mr. Dobney, the American consul, applied to the governor of Fayal, to enforce the privileges of a neutral port in favour of the American ship. The governor expressed his indignation at what had passed, but was unable with his means to resist such a force. His remonstrances to the British commander were answered by an insulting refusal. On the morning of the 27th, one of the ships took a station near the shore, and commenced a heavy cannonade on the brig. Captain Reid, finding further resistance unavailing, partially destroyed the brig, and went on shore with his crew; the British then set her on fire. In this attack, not only the privileges of neutrality, but the safety of the town was wholly disregarded. Several of the inhabitants were dangerously wounded, and a number of houses destroyed.

On the 14th of January, Commodore Decatur, in the frigate President, attempted to get out of the harbour of New York. Owing to some mistake, his ship grounded, and continued beating in that situation for two hours. She sustained so much injury that the commodore would have put back for repairs, but a strong westerly wind prevented. At ten o'clock in the evening, she cleared the bar, and proceeded a distance of fifty miles along the south shore of Long Island, and then bore away for the Brazils. At five o'clock in the morning of the 15th, three ships were discovered ahead; the commodore immediately hauled his wind, and passed to the north of them. At daylight four ships were discovered in chase, one on each quarter, and two astern; the leading ship appeared to be a razee. At noon the wind became light and baffling; the razee fell astern, but the next ship in pursuit had gained considerably on the President. Commodore Decatur then lightened the ship of every thing not necessary for immediate defence, kept his canvas constantly wet, and crowded every sail to escape. At three in the afternoon, the Endymion fifty-gun ship, being favoured by a good breeze, came within shot, and commenced firing her bow guns. At five she obtained a position at half point-blank shot on the President's starboard quarter. In this situation the Endymion was cutting up the President's sails and rigging without exposing herself to any injury. The commodore then shifted his course to the south for the purpose of bringing the Endymion abeam. The ships continued a southerly course, and closely engaged for two hours and a half, when the Endymion became dismantled, and dropped out of the action. The President then resumed her former course with a view of clearing the squadron. At eleven o'clock at night, two fresh ships, the Po-

mona and Tenedos, came up, and opened their fire; the Pomona on the larboard bow within musket-shot, and the Tenedos taking a raking position two cables length astern. The razee and a brig which had joined the squadron, had also arrived within gun-shot. In this situation the commodore reluctantly surrendered his ship. The loss on board the President was twenty-five killed, and fifty-five wounded. She was carried into Bermuda, where the commodore and most of the officers were paroled.

The remainder of the American squadron proceeded toward their place of rendezvous. On the 16th, the Hornet parted from the other ships; and on the 23d, near her anchoring-ground, she fell in with the British sloop-of-war Penguin. An action commenced at forty minutes past one in the afternoon, at musket distance; at two, the Penguin bore up apparently with the intention of boarding, and ran her bowsprit between the main and mizen rigging of the Hornet, on the starboard quarter, affording a fair apportunity to board, but no attempt was made. An incessant and destructive fire was kept up from the Hornet, until the commanding officer of the Penguin called out that he had surrendered, when Captain Biddle directed his men to cease firing. While he was on the taffrail inquiring if they had surrendered, he received a ball in the neck; the ships then separated, and while the Hornet was wearing to give a fresh broadside, they again called out from the Penguin that they had surrendered, and Captain Biddle took possession of her in just twenty-two minutes from the commencement of the action. The Penguin mounted nineteen guns, and had a complement of one hundred and thirty-two men. Her loss was fourteen killed, including the commander, Captain Dickinson, and twenty-eight wounded. The loss on board the Hornet was one killed, and eleven wounded. Captain Biddle finding it impossible, from the crippled state of his prize, to send her into the United States, ordered her to be scuttled and sunk, and proceeded to his anchorage, at the island of Tristran d'Acunha. After McDonald, the first lieutenant of the Penguin, had repeatedly called out that he had surrendered, and the Hornet had ceased to fire, two men on board the Penguin took aim and fired at Captain Biddle and the man at the helm; two marines on board the Hornet observing this, levelled their pieces and shot both the assassins dead.

The squadron, after waiting on the coast of Brazil, the period designated by their instructions, and not hearing from the President, sailed for the Indian Ocean. In lat. 38½ S., and lon. 33 E., on the 27th of April, a British ship of the line appeared in sight, and gave chase. The American ships immediately separated, and the chase

continued in pursuit of the Hornet. At nine o'clock P. M. the chase continuing to gain upon him, Captain Biddle lightened ship; by daylight on the 29th, the enemy was within gunshot on his lee quarter, and at seven hoisted the English jack and a rear-admiral's flag, and commenced firing. At eleven, Captain Biddle threw overboard all his armament, and every thing that could be spared from the ship; the British continuing within fair range, and constantly firing. Fortunately the fire deadened their wind, and at sunset, they were four miles astern; at daylight the next morning, twelve miles; and at eleven o'clock, entirely out of sight. The Hornet, now deprived of her armament, and short of provisions, shaped her course for St. Salvador, where she heard the news of peace, and returned to New York.

The Constitution, Captain Stewart, left Boston harbour on the 17th of December, on a cruise to the western islands, and the coast of Portugal. On the 20th of February, sixty leagues eastward of Madeira, she fell in with the Cyanne and Levant, British ships. At six in the afternoon the action commenced by broadsides from all the ships at three hundred yards distance. After an action of forty-five minutes, the Cyanne surrendered and was taken possession of by Captain Stewart; the Levant at this time endeavouring to escape. Having secured his prize, Captain Stewart immediately went in pursuit of the other ship, then in sight to the leeward: at nine o'clock came up with her, and exchanged broadsides. The Levant then crowded all sail, the Constitution in chase firing her bow guns; at ten the Levant surrendered. The two British ships mounted fifty-five guns, and were manned with three hundred and thirty-six men. Their loss was thirty-five killed, and forty-two wounded. The Constitution had three killed, and twelve wounded. The British ships were just out from Gibraltar, bound to Madeira with supernumeraries, rigging, and equipments, for a British ship building at the Western Islands. February 21st, the three ships stood to the westward, and on the 23d made Porto Santo, one of the Madeiras, and continued under short cruising sail until the 8th of March; when they anchored in Port Praya, in the island of St. Jago. At noon, on the 12th, the British ships Leander, Acasta, and Newcastle, which had been in search of the Constitution during her whole cruise, appeared off the harbour. Captain Stewart, apprehending that a neutral port would afford him no protection, immediately slipped his cables, and put to sea with his prizes. The British made all sail in pursuit. At one, Captain Stewart observing the Cyanne to fall astern, gave a signal for her to tack, and separate. Without regarding the Cyanne, the

chase was continued after the Constitution and Levant. At three, the Levant, also falling astern, was ordered to tack and return to port. The British ships then gave up the chase of the Constitution, and pursued the Levant into Porto Praya, and took her, under the guns of a Portuguese fort. The Cyanne arrived at New York on the 15th of April, and the Constitution on the 1st of May.

The number of British vessels of every description, captured and sent into port, or destroyed during the year 1814, including several taken after the conclusion, but before notice of the peace, amounted to nine hundred and four. The whole number taken during the war, exclusive of those which had been recaptured, was sixteen hundred and thirty-four, carrying three thousand one hundred and thirteen guns, and twelve thousand two hundred and fifteen men. The loss of these ships to the British nation, estimating each vessel, cargo, and equipments, at the time of sailing, at an average of forty thousand dollars, amounted to sixty-five millions, three hundred and sixty thousand dollars. One hundred and seventy of these captures were made by the public armed ships of the United States; the residue by privateers. Ninety-eight of these prizes were ships of war belonging to the British navy; the residue were the property of British subjects.

The British captured at sea and on the lakes during the war, twenty national armed ships, and twenty-two gunboats. They also took or destroyed two hundred and twenty-eight American privateers. The whole number of merchant vessels captured or destroyed, amounted to thirteen hundred and ninety-eight. Seventy of these were in the British ports at the declaration of war, and there detained and made prizes; a great portion of the others were destroyed in the American ports, dismantled and without cargoes. Eighteen thousand four hundred and thirteen American seamen were made prisoners during the war, and two thousand five hundred and forty-eight detained as prisoners of war, being American seamen in British ports at the declaration of war, or impressed seamen, who refused to serve, and gave themselves up as prisoners.

Toward the close of 1814, the affairs of the United States were in a critical position. The American commissioners said the British negotiators demand inadmissible terms. The expenditure of the country greatly exceeded its income. But the government adopted vigorous measures. New loans were authorized and the energetic Monroe acted as secretary of war in the place of General Armstrong. The violent opposition of some of the New England States to the war, threatened the stability of the Union. A convention was held

at Hartford in December, which issued an address, bitterly denouncing the government, and recommending amendments to the federal constitution. But the great majority sustained the president in the prosecution of the war.

The defence of the seventh military district, comprehending the States of Tennessee and Louisiana, and the Mississippi Territory, was intrusted to General Jackson. After subduing the Creeks, and granting them peace on such terms as he thought proper, under the direction of the president, he proceeded to establish strong garrisons at the various military posts in the Mississippi Territory, the object of which was to watch and check any hostile movements of the Indians.

From the commencement of Indian hostilities in the South, the Spanish authorities in Florida had given the hostile tribes all the aid and encouragement in their power, and had suffered the British to supply them, through the post and territories of the Floridas, with the means of carrying on their warfare. After the defeat of the Creeks, McQueen and Francis, the two principal instigators of the massacre at Fort Mimms, and the subsequent war, took refuge at Pensacola, under the protection of the Spanish governor. A considerable quantity of arms for the use of the hostile Indians, which were collecting in the Floridas, and on the borders of the United States, were suffered to be landed, and conveyed up the Apalachicola river, to enable them to renew their hostilities. Against this conduct of the Spanish government, General Jackson urged the most strong and pointed remonstrances; but received nothing but evasive and unsatisfactory answers: while a continuance of the same course of proceedings, gave abundant evidence of the weakness and partiality of the Spanish authorities.

The establishment of the British in the Floridas, so convenient for them to supply the Indians, and encourage their hostilities, and so injurious to the United States, General Jackson determined, on his own responsibility, to break up. The Spanish authorities claimed that national law regards neutral territory as inviolable, admits no hostile acts between the belligerants, nor permits either to pursue or attack the other thereon. The same principles allow the neutral to open his ports and harbours equally to both belligerants. While, therefore, Spain did not refuse the same accommodation to the Americans, she could not be accused of a breach of neutrality in permitting the British to rendezvous at Pensacola, however injurious it might be to the interests of the United States. To this it was answered that as she had not caused her rights as a neutral to be respected by the British in the case of the Essex at Valparaiso, but had suffered them to be

grossly violated, to the injury of the Americans; she could not now complain if they availed themselves of the same privilege of attacking their enemy while on her territory. What course it might be expedient to pursue in relation to this subject was a question exclusively for the American government to determine.

Without waiting however for this determination, General Jackson, on the 6th of November, appeared before the town of Pensacola with the regulars of the 3d, 39th, and 44th regiments of infantry, part of General Coffee's brigade, the Mississippi dragoons, part of the West Tennessee regiment, and the Choctaws under Major Blue. On his approach, he sent Major Pierce with a flag, to communicate the object of his visit to the governor. As the flag approached Fort St. George, then occupied by British and Spanish troops, it was fired upon and compelled to return. The Americans encamped on the west of the town, and in order to induce a belief that the attack would commence on that quarter, the mounted men were paraded and sent out on the morning of the 7th. While the attention of the British was directed to them, the main body passed in rear of the fort to the east side of the town, where they appeared in full view, at a mile's distance. In this position there was a strong fort in possession of the British ready to assail them on the right, seven armed ships on the left, and strong block-houses and batteries in front. General Jackson led on his men with firmness, and entered the town, when a battery opened upon his centre column composed of the regulars, with ball and grape, while at the same time they were assailed by a shower of musketry from the houses and gardens. Captain Leval, with his company, immediately stormed and took the battery, while the enemy's musketry were silenced by a steady and well directed fire of the regulars. The governor now came out, and met Colonels Williamson and Smith, who led the dismounted volunteers, with a flag, and surrendered the town and fort unconditionally. The fort was taken possession of at twelve o'clock at night; and protection granted to the persons and property of the citizens of the town. On the morning of the 8th, General Jackson was preparing to storm the Barrancas, a fortress six miles from the town, which commanded the entrance of the harbour, and in the hands of the Americans could have enabled them to prevent the escape of the British ships, when a tremendous explosion gave notice that the fortress with its appendages was blown up. To save the shipping, the British had compelled the Spaniards to consent to the destruction of this post, the most important in the Floridas. A detachment of two hundred men were sent to examine the ruins, who reported that every thing combustible was burned, the cannon spiked

and dismounted, and the British gone to their ships. At the approach of General Jackson, the hostile Indians fled across the bay. The American general, having assured the Spaniards that any injury done to private property should be compensated by the American government, withdrew his troops from the Spanish territory, and returned to Tensaw on the 13th of November, leaving a strong impression of the bravery and firmness of the American troops.

The success of this enterprise, and its beneficial effects to the United States, precluded all inquiry into the real character of the transaction. It was in effect making war upon Spain, by an American general, without the authority of Congress or the executive. Under other circumstances, it might have involved the country in war with that nation, or the government must have disavowed the transaction, dismissed the general, and made restitution. But Spain was at this time in no condition to resist either British or American aggressions.

Toward the close of the year 1814, the attention of the British and Americans was drawn from all minor operations of the war, to the attack and defence of New Orleans. The city is situated on the east bank of the Mississippi, one hundred miles from its mouth. Forty miles up the river is Detour Plaquemine, where there is a considerable bend in the river, so that the same wind which brings a ship into this bend will not serve to carry it further up. Fort St. Philip's is erected on a point of land formed by this bend, and commands the passage. A ship of war entering it must lie to, within reach of the guns of this fort, until a change of wind enables her to proceed up the river; by reason of marshes, the fort is inaccessible by land. This position is the principal defence of the city from an attack by sea. Forty miles above this is the Detour l'Anglois, or English town, situate in a similar form, but not fortified. From this to the city is a high embankment, or dyke, on the margin of the river, to prevent its overflowing the adjacent country: the surface of this embankment forms a convenient road. One hundred miles above the city, is an outlet from the river on its east bank, which is denominated the River Iberville, and communicates with Lake Pontchartrain, through Lake Maurepas. Lake Pontchartrain, by a narrow pass, communicates with Lake Borgne, and this with the Gulf of Mexico. The land encircled by these waters, forms the Island of Orleans, and is low, level, and swampy, intersected with numerous bayous or creeks, and much of it lower than the surface of the river. The outlet from Lake Pontchartrain to Lake Borgne is about four miles in length. For the defence of this passage, a small fortress had been erected, called Petit Coquille. General Wilkinson, while he commanded at New

Orleans, having been directed to present a plan for the defence of the city; and considering that the probable course which an enemy designing an attack, would take, must be through this passage, and up the Bayou St. John, which would bring them directly before the city, advised that the fortification at the Petit Coquille be enlarged and provided with sixty pieces of heavy ordnance, and an adequate garrison. His plan was never adopted; but the enemy having obtained possession of it, and believing it to have been executed, were deterred from making their attack at that point. At the entrance of Lake Borgne into the Gulf of Mexico are a number of small islands, the principal of which is Ship or Pine Island, where there is a harbour. At this place, and at every entrance into the lake from the gulf, the water is shoal, and will not admit of sea vessels.

The city of New Orleans is the natural and only convenient place of deposit on the Mississippi, which furnishes an outlet for one half the territory of the United States, containing one quarter of its population. The productions of the country above, are transported in rafts, boats, and various river craft, to this city, whence they are shipped in sea vessels to distant markets. Its situation rendered it the most important point of attack which the United States presented. At this period, vast quantities of sugar, cotton, tobacco, and other productions were accumulated here, which the war had prevented from being exported, and now promised a rich harvest of plunder. These circumstances rendered this city an important object to the British government, either as a permanent conquest, or a subject of negotiation. The same circumstances rendered its defence, at all hazards, an imperious duty on the part of the United States.

After the British fleet left the Chesapeake, they repaired to Jamaica for the purpose of recruiting, obtaining supplies, and concentrating their forces. At this place, and at Bermuda, the whole British force, which could be spared from the Atlantic coast, from Halifax to Georgia, rendezvoused in the month of November for the New Orleans expedition: large reinforcements were also ordered from England, under General Packenham, furnished not only with the means of war, but also with printing-presses, custom-house and civil officers; and every thing incident to a permanent establishment. On the 20th of November, this formidable armament, consisting of upward of sixty sail, left the West Indies for the Gulf of Mexico; and on the 18th of December rendezvoused in the neighbourhood of Ship Island, at the entrance of Lake Borgne.

General Jackson, with the regular troops from the Mobile and Mississippi Territory, arrived at New Orleans on the 2d of December, and

put in operation the most rigorous measures of defence. The militia of Louisiana and Mississippi were ordered out *en masse*, and large detachments from Tennessee and Kentucky. From a previous correspondence with Governor Claiborne, General Jackson had been informed that the city corps had for the most part refused obedience to the orders which he had given to turn out on the requisition of General Flournoy; that they had been encouraged in their disobedience by the legislature of the State, who were then in session in the city; that, although there were many faithful citizens in New Orleans, there were many others whose attachment to the United States could not be confided in; and should the city be attacked, they must principally depend upon the regular troops, and the militia of the Western States for defence. "Many of the citizens," the governor observes, "are devoted to the interests of Spain; and whose hostility to the English is no less observable than their dislike to the American government. Native Americans, native Louisianians, Frenchmen, Spaniards, and English compose the population; among them there exists much jealousy, and as great a difference in political sentiment as in their language and habits."

In addition to this communication, on the 8th of September, the governor writes, "There is great reason to fear a much greater disaffection than I had anticipated. The garrison here is alarmingly weak, and from the great mixture of persons and character in this city, we have much to apprehend, from within as well as without. In arresting the intercourse between New Orleans and Pensacola, you have done right. That place is, in fact, an enemy's post; and had our commercial intercourse continued, the supplies furnished the enemy would have so much exhausted our own stock of provisions, as to have occasioned the most serious inconvenience to ourselves. I was on the point of taking on myself the prohibition of the trade to Pensacola, and should have issued a proclamation for that purpose, the very day I heard of your interposition. Enemies to the country may blame you for the very prompt and energetic measures you have taken; but in the person of every patriot you will find a supporter. I am aware of the lax police of the city, and indeed throughout the State, with respect to the visits of strangers. I think with you that our country is filled with spies and traitors."

On his arrival in the city, General Jackson found these sentiments of the governor fully justified; and, on consultation with him, in conjunction with Judge Hall, and many influential persons of the city, on the 16th of December, issued an order, declaring the city and environs of New Orleans to be under strict martial law. Every in-

dividual entering the city was required to report himself to the adjutant-general, and no person by land or water was suffered to leave the city without a passport. The street lamps were ordered to be extinguished at nine o'clock; after which any persons found in the streets, or from their homes without permission in writing, and not having the countersign, were ordered to be apprehended as spies. This measure at once converted the whole city into a camp, and subjected the persons and property of the citizens to the will of the commanding general. Writs of habeas corpus, and all other civil process by means of which the lives and properties of the people are protected, were for the time suspended. Such was the alarm and confusion of the moment, that few inquiries were made whence the commanding general of a military station derived such powers, to be exercised over the inhabitants of the adjacent country, in nowise connected with his camp. Although the brilliant success which afterward attended the operations of General Jackson seemed to justify the measure, yet the people saw in it a precedent, which though it might have saved New Orleans, might at some future period extinguish their liberties. A most rigid police was now instituted. Spies and traitors, with which the governor complained the city abounded, and who had been industriously employed in seducing the French and Spanish inhabitants from their allegiance, now fled; and the remaining citizens cordially co-operated with the general in the means of defence. Fort St. Philip's, which guarded the passage of the river at the Detour la Plaquemine, was strengthened and placed under the command of Major Overton, an able and skilful engineer. A site was selected for works of defence, four miles below the city, where its destinies were ultimately to be determined. The right rested on the river, and the left was flanked by an impenetrable cypress swamp, which extended eastward to Lake Pontchartrain, and westward to within a mile of the river. Between the swamp and the river was a large ditch or artificial bayou which had been made for agricultural objects, but which now served an important military purpose. On the northern bank of this ditch the intrenchments were thrown up, and large quantities of cotton bales so arranged that the troops could be effectually protected from the enemy's fire. Each flank was secured by an advance bastion; and the latter protected by batteries in the rear. These works were well mounted with artillery. Opposite this position, on the west bank of the river, on a rising ground, General Morgan, with the city and drafted militia, was stationed; and Commodore Patterson, with the crews of the Caroline and Louisiana, and the guns of the latter, formed another, near General Morgan's; both

which entirely enfiladed the approach of an enemy against the principal works. A detachment was stationed above the town to guard the pass of the Bayou St. John, if an attempt should be made from that quarter. These arrangements, promptly and judiciously made, gave entire confidence to the citizens, and inspired them with zeal to second the general's exertions. Reinforcements were daily arriving, and as they arrived, were immediately conducted to their respective stations.

In the mean time, the British were actively employed in making preparations for the attack. Believing the pass from Lake Borgne to Lake Pontchartrain to be defended according to General Wilkinson's plan by the Fortress of Petit Coquille, they determined to land from Lake Borgne, by the Bayou Bienvenue. For this purpose they concentrated their forces on Ship Island, eighty miles distant from the contemplated place of landing. The depth of water in Lake Borgne was such that this distance could be traversed only by boats and small craft, and must necessarily be passed several times in order to bring up the whole armament. The first object of the British general was to clear the lake of the American gunboats; and for this purpose, forty British launches were sent in pursuit of them, and, after a desperate resistance, captured and destroyed the whole American flotilla stationed on Lake Borgne and Pontchartrain for the defence of New Orleans, consisting of five gunboats, and a small sloop and schooner. By this success they obtained the undisturbed possession of the lake; and on the 22d of December proceeded from their rendezvous on Ship Island, with all their boats and small craft capable of navigating the lake, to the Bayou Bienvenue; and having surprised and captured the videttes at the mouth of the bayou, the first division accomplished their landing unobserved. Major-general Villiere, of the New Orleans militia, living on the bayou, to whom the important service of making the first attack, and giving notice of the enemy's approach was intrusted, found them on his plantation, nine miles below the city, without any previous knowledge of their approach.

Notice was immediately given to General Jackson, who came out and attacked them on the evening of the 23d. In this affair, the British sustained a loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, of five hundred. The British intrenched themselves at the Bienvenue plantation, four miles from the American camp, making the plantation-house in the rear of their works their head-quarters. General Jackson established his head-quarters at McCarty's plantation, on the bank of the river, and in full view of the British encampment. Two armed

schooners, the Caroline and Louisiana, constituting all the American naval force on the river, dropped down from the city, anchored opposite the British encampment, and opened a brisk fire upon their lines with considerable effect. On the 27th, the Caroline, Captain Henly, got becalmed within reach of the British batteries, and was set fire to, and destroyed by their hot shot: the other succeeded in getting out of their reach. On the 28th, the British advanced within half a mile of the American lines, and opened a fire of shells and rockets; but were driven back by the artillery with considerable loss. On the night of the 31st December, the enemy again advanced within six hundred yards of General Jackson's position, and erected three batteries, mounting fifteen guns, and, at eight o'clock in the morning, opened a heavy fire. In the course of the day, under cover of these batteries, three unsuccessful attempts were made to storm the American works. By four in the afternoon, all their batteries were silenced, and, in the following night, they returned to their former position. On the 4th of January, General Adair arrived, with four thousand Kentucky militia, principally without arms. The muskets and munitions of war destined for the supply of this corps, were provided at Pittsburgh, and did not leave that place until the 25th of December; passed Louisville the 6th of January, and arrived at New Orleans several days after the battle of the 8th. On the 6th, the last reinforcement of three thousand men arrived from England, under Major-general Lambert. Before the final assault on the American lines, the British general deemed it necessary to dislodge General Morgan and Commodore Patterson from their positions on the right bank. These posts so effectually enfiladed the approach to General Jackson's works, that the army advancing to the assault must be exposed to the most imminent hazard. To accomplish this object, boats were to be transported across the island from Lake Borgne to the Mississippi; for this purpose the British had been laboriously employed in deepening and widening the canal or bayou Bienvenue, on which they first disembarked. On the 7th, they succeeded in opening the embankment on the river, and completing a communication from the lake to the Mississippi. In pushing the boats through, it was found at some places that the canal was not of sufficient width, and at others the banks fell in and choked the passage, which necessarily occasioned great delay and increase of labour. At length, however, they succeeded in hauling through a sufficient number to transport five hundred troops to the right bank. At dawn of day on the 8th was the period fixed for the final assault on the American lines. Colonel Thornton was detached with five hundred men, to cross the

river, and attack the batteries on that side, at the same time that the main assault was made, of which he was to be informed by a signal rocket. The American general had detached Colonel Davis, with three hundred Kentucky militia, badly armed, to reinforce General Morgan. These were immediately ordered to the water edge, to oppose the enemy's landing. Unable in their situation to contend with a superior force of regular troops well armed, they soon broke and fled, and the Louisiana militia at General Morgan's battery followed their example. Commodore Patterson's marine battery, being now unprotected, his crews were obliged to yield to an overwhelming force, and the British succeeded in silencing both; but the opposition Colonel Thornton met with prevented this operation from being completed, until the contest was nearly ended on the opposite side of the river.

At daylight on the morning of the 8th, the main body of the British, under their commander-in-chief, General Packenham, were seen advancing from their encampment to storm the American lines. On the preceding evening, they had erected a battery within eight hundred yards, which now opened a brisk fire to protect their advance. The British came on in two columns, the left along the levee on the bank of the river, directed against the American right, while their right advanced to the swamp, with a view to turn General Jackson's left. The country being a perfect level, and the view unobstructed, their march was observed from its commencement. They were suffered to approach in silence and unmolested, until within three hundred yards of the lines. This period of suspense and expectation was employed by General Jackson and his officers in stationing every man at his post, and arranging every thing for the decisive event. When the British columns had advanced within three hundred yards of the lines, the whole artillery at once opened upon them a most deadly fire. Forty pieces of cannon deeply charged with grape, canister, and musket-balls, mowed them down by hundreds: at the same time the batteries on the west bank opened their fire; while the riflemen in perfect security behind their works, as the British advanced, took deliberate aim, and nearly every shot took effect. Through this destructive fire, the British left column, under the immediate orders of the commander-in-chief, rushed on with their fascines and scaling ladders to the advance bastion on the American right, and succeeded in mounting the parapet; here, after a close conflict with the bayonet, they succeeded in obtaining possession of the bastion; when the battery planted in the rear for its protection, opened its fire, and drove the British from the ground. On the American left, the British at-

tempted to pass the swamp, and gain the rear, but the works had been extended as far into the swamp as the ground would permit. Some who attempted it, sunk in the mire and disappeared; those behind, seeing the fate of their companions, seasonably retreated and gained the hard ground. The assault continued an hour and a quarter: during the whole time the British were exposed to the deliberate and destructive fire of the American artillery and musketry, which lay in perfect security behind their breastworks of cotton-bales, which no balls could penetrate. At eight o'clock, the British column drew off in confusion, and retreated behind their works. Flushed with success, the militia were eager to pursue the British troops to their intrenchments, and drive them immediately from the island. A less prudent and accomplished general might have been induced to yield to the indiscreet ardour of his troops; but General Jackson, understood too well the nature both of his own and his enemy's force, to hazard such an attempt. Defeat must inevitably have attended such an assault made by raw militia upon an intrenched camp of British regulars. The defence of New Orleans was the object; nothing was to be hazarded which would jeopardize the city. The British were suffered to retire behind their works without molestation. The result was such as might be expected from the different positions of the two armies. General Packenham, near the crest of the glacis, received a ball in his knee. Still continuing to lead on his men, another shot pierced his body, and he was carried off the field. Nearly at the same time, Major-general Gibbs, the second in command, within a few yards of the lines, received a mortal wound, and was removed. The third in command, Major-general Keane, at the head of his troops near the glacis, was severely wounded. The three commanding generals, on marshalling their troops at five o'clock in the morning, promised them a plentiful dinner in New Orleans, and gave them *booty and beauty* as the parole and countersign of the day. Before eight o'clock, the three generals were carried off the field, two in the agonies of death, and the third entirely disabled; leaving upward of two thousand of their men, dead, dying, and wounded, on the field of battle. Colonel Raynor, who commanded the forlorn hope which stormed the American bastion on the right, as he was leading his men up, had the calf of his leg carried away by a cannon-shot. Disabled as he was, he was the first to mount the parapet, and receive the American bayonet. Seven hundred were killed on the field, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred made prisoners, making a total on that day of twenty-six hundred. But six Americans were killed, and seven wounded. Of General Morgan's detachment on the

west bank, and in a sortie on the British lines, forty-nine were killed, and one hundred and seventy-eight wounded.

After the battle, General Lambert, who had arrived from England but two days before, and was now the only surviving general, requested a truce for the purpose of burying his dead. This was granted until four o'clock in the afternoon of the ninth. Lines were drawn one hundred rods distant from the American camp, within which the British were not permitted to approach. In the ditch, and in front of the works, within the prescribed lines, four hundred and eighty-two British dead were picked up by the American troops, and delivered to their companions over the lines for burial. The afternoon of the 8th, and the whole of the 9th, was spent by the British army in burying their dead. The American sentinels guarding the lines during this interval, frequently repeated in the hearing of the British, while tumbling their companions by hundreds into the pits, "Six killed, seven wounded." General Lambert employed the first moments of the truce in recalling Colonel Thornton's corps from the west bank. On the 9th, General Lambert and Admiral Cochrane, with the surviving officers of the army, held a council of war, and determined to abandon the expedition. To withdraw the troops from their position, and re-embark in the face of a victorious enemy, presented an object of nearly as much difficulty and hazard as the first landing and attack. To accomplish this, every appearance of a renewal of the assault was kept up. The British remained firm in their position, and presented a menacing front until the 18th.

In order to induce a belief that a united attack by land and water was still intended, the lighter ships ascended the river to the Detour la Plaquemine, and commenced a bombardment of Fort St. Philip's on the 9th, and continued it until the 17th. The ships, taking stations out of the reach of the guns, commenced throwing shells into the fort, and continued it with little intermission during the whole time. Major Overton, with the garrison under his command, sustained the attack with firmness and with little loss: but two were killed and seven wounded. On the 17th, the ships withdrew and joined the squadron off Ship Island. This attack on Fort St. Philip's answered the purpose of keeping up the alarm at New Orleans, and inducing a belief that another attempt was intended. During the whole of this time, the general and admiral were with the utmost secrecy and silence withdrawing and re-embarking their heavy artillery, baggage, and stores. On the night of the 18th, they broke up their encampment, and commenced their retreat to the place of their first landing.

This was the last action of the war. The Americans had suffered many disasters at the commencement of the struggle, but they came out of the contest with an exalted naval and military reputation.

Soon after the ratification of peace with Great Britain, the United States declared war against Algiers. The Algerine government had violated the treaty of 1795. In 1812, under pretence that the cargo of the ship Alleghany, which had just arrived with naval stores, for the payment of tribute, did not contain such an assortment of articles as he had a right to expect, the Dey of Algiers demanded additional tribute to be paid in money. After several ineffectual attempts to negotiate, Colonel Lear, the American consul, made arrangements for paying the demand, and sailed for the United States. Immediately after his departure, the Dey commenced hostilities upon the commerce of the United States in the Mediterranean. These outrages were not chastised at the time, on account of the war with Great Britain. War having been declared against Algiers, two squadrons were fitted out, under Commodores Decatur and Bainbridge. Commodore Decatur sailed from New York in May, and proceeding up the Mediterranean, captured, on the 17th of June, an Algerine frigate, and on the 19th, off Cape Palos, an Algerine brig, carrying 22 guns. From Palos, Decatur sailed for Algiers. The Dey, intimidated, signed a treaty of peace, which was highly honourable and advantageous to the Americans. Decatur then proceeded to Tunis and Tripoli, where he obtained satisfaction for the unprovoked violation of the treaty subsisting between those governments and the United States, and caused the former treaties to be renewed. On his arrival at Gibraltar, Commodore Decatur joined the squadron under Commodore Bainbridge, to whom he resigned the command. Bainbridge, with this additional force, made his appearance before Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, but seeing no disposition to violate the treaties, he returned to the United States.

With a view to the tranquillity of the Western and North-western frontiers, measures were taken to obtain a peace with several tribes of Indians who had been hostile to the United States. Several of their chiefs met at Detroit, on the 6th of September, and readily acceded to a renewal of their former treaties of friendship.

At the close of the war, the regular army of the United States was reduced to 10,000 men. For the better protection of the country in case of another war, Congress appropriated a large sum for fortifying the seacoast and inland frontiers, and for the increase of the navy.

In April, 1816, an act was passed by Congress to establish a national bank, with a capital of 35,000,000 of dollars.

In August, Fort Apalachicola, which was occupied by runaway negroes and hostile Indians, was destroyed by a detachment of American troops. More than one hundred were killed, and the remainder were taken prisoners. In September, General Jackson held a treaty with the Chickasaws, Choctaws, and Cherokees. He made purchases of their lands, particularly favourable to the wishes and security of the frontier settlements. The tranquillity which was restored among the Indians themselves contributed to favour the resumption of the work of civilization, which previous to the war had made considerable progress. In December the Indiana Territory was admitted into the Union as a State.

In 1816, the presidential election occurred. Mr. Madison, following the example of his predecessors, declined a re-election. James Monroe and Daniel D. Tompkins, the candidates of the Republican party, were elected president and vice-president by a considerable majority. Mr. Madison retired from the laborious and highly responsible position which he had occupied, generally esteemed as a man, but while partisans still denied him the qualifications necessary to constitute an able president.

In 1817, Mr. Madison retired to his farm to enjoy the serenity of rural life; but here he was not idle. On the death of Mr. Jefferson, he was made Chancellor of the University of Virginia, and, as well as his predecessor, took a deep interest in the prosperity of the institution. When Virginia called a convention to alter her constitution, Mr. Madison, with Chief-justice Marshall and Mr. Monroe, were found among the sages who had witnessed the birth of that constitution, and were well acquainted with its excellences and defects, and were good judges of the best forms of amendment. Many years ago, a bookseller at Washington got up an edition of the debates in the several conventions called by the States in 1787 and 1788, to deliberate on the adoption of the constitution of the United States. Mr. Madison took a lively interest in this publication, and afforded the editor all the information that he possessed upon the subject.

Mr. Madison was unquestionably the leading member in the Virginia convention called for the adoption of the constitution of the United States, although there were several distinguished men among them. This body was fortunate enough to have employed a reporter of eminence for the occasion, which was not the case in many other States; and what the Virginia reporter did not put down in his notes, Mr. Madison's minutes and recollections most readily supplied.

In the convention he had to meet the blaze of Patrick Henry's eloquence, the subtle arguments of Mason, and the chilling doubts

of Monroe; but all were overcome by the clearness of his views and the force of his reasonings. Mr. Madison was not an orator in the common acceptation of the word; there were no deep tones in his voice; no flashes of a fierce and commanding eye; no elegant gestures to attract the beholder; all was calm, dignified, and convincing. It was the still, small voice, in which the oracles of God were communicated to the prophet. He never talked for the love of display, but simply to communicate his thoughts. He spoke often in debate, when earnest in his cause, but was always heard with profound attention; not a word of his speeches was lost. He was so perfectly master of his subject, that he had nothing to correct in a retrospective view of it, and was so well understood that he had nothing to explain. His voice was deficient in volume, but it was so well modulated, that its compass was more extensive than that of many speakers of stronger lungs. His conversation was truly a charm. He was familiar with most topics, and he loved both to communicate and receive information. He lived in times when men grew up with strong prejudices and partialities; but his most familiar guests seldom heard a sentence tinged with them, either at his table or fireside. For nearly twenty years he had been daily preparing for the change of worlds, and at last sank into the arms of death in as peaceful a sleep as a babe on the bosom of his mother. Nature and religion had cured him of all fears of the grave; he had no dread of what "dreams might come when he had shuffled off this mortal coil." He had no enmities to settle, for he had quarrelled with no one; he had no slanders to forgive, for no one ever traduced him. His history contains, indeed, a miracle, for there has not been one of mortal, or of immortal birth, who has acted a conspicuous part on this earth, but James Madison, whose private reputation has not been assailed.

JAMES MONROE.

THE members of the cabinet during the administration of President Madison, were as follows:—Secretaries of state, Robert Smith and James Monroe; secretaries of the treasury, Albert Gallatin, George W. Campbell, and Alexander J. Dallas; secretaries of war, William Eustis, John Armstrong, James Monroe, and William H. Crawford; secretaries of the navy, Samuel Hamilton, William Jones, and Benjamin

W. Crowinshield; attorneys-general, Cæsar A. Rodney, William Pinckney, and Richard Rush; Gideon Granger, and Return Jonathan Meigs were postmasters-general. A biography of Mr. MONROE will be found in its proper place, as that for President of the United States.

GEORGE W. CAMPBELL.

GEORGE WASHINGTON CAMPBELL was a native of Tennessee. Having been educated to the profession of the law, he gradually rose to distinction, and after serving in the legislature of his native State, was elected to a seat in the United States Senate. On the 11th of February, 1814, Mr. Madison appointed him secretary of the treasury. He made but one report, and that showed a lamentable condition of affairs in the department under his control. The toils of the position destroyed his health in a few months, and he resigned on the 28th of September, 1814, being succeeded by Mr. A. J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania. Mr. Campbell made no figure in public life afterward.

ALEXANDER JAMES DALLAS.

ALEXANDER JAMES DALLAS was secretary of the treasury under Mr. Madison's second term of administration, and one of the ablest of American financiers. He was born in the Island of Jamaica, on the 1st of June, 1759. When quite young, he was sent to school at Edinburgh, and afterward at Westminster. His father was an eminent and wealthy physician in the Island of Jamaica. In 1781, after the death of his father, he left England for Jamaica. It was found that the whole of Mr. Dallas's property was left at the disposal of his widow, who married again, and no part of it ever came to the rest of the family. The subject of this article left Jamaica in April, 1783, and arrived at New York June 7, and at Philadelphia a week after. June 17th, he took the oath of allegiance to the State of Pennsylvania. In July, 1785, he was admitted to practise in the supreme court of Pennsylvania, and, in the course of four or five years, became a practitioner in the courts of the United States.

During this period, his practice not being extensive, he prepared his reports for the press, and occupied himself in various literary undertakings. He wrote much in the magazines of the day. Of the Columbian Magazine he was at one time editor. His essays will bear a comparison with those of his contemporaries; and this is no small praise, for Franklin, Rush, and Hopkinson were of the number. January 19, 1791, he was appointed secretary of Pennsylvania by Governor Mifflin. In December, 1793, his commission was renewed. Not long after, he was appointed paymaster-general of the forces that marched to the West, and he accompanied the expedition to Pittsburg. In December, 1796, the office of secretary was again confided to him. While he held this office, he published an edition of the laws of the commonwealth, with notes. Upon the election of Mr. Jefferson, in 1801, he was appointed attorney of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania, and he continued in this office until his removal to Washington. October 6, he was appointed secretary of the treasury of the United States. The circumstances under which he entered this difficult situation, the boldness with which he assumed its responsibilities, his energy of character, and the general confidence and approbation with which his career was accompanied, belong to the history of the times. March 13, 1815, he undertook the additional trust of secretary of war, and performed with success the delicate task of reducing the army of the United States.

In November, 1816, peace being restored, the finances arranged, the embarrassment of the circulating medium daily diminishing, and soon to disappear under the influence of the national bank, which it had so long been his effort to establish, Mr. Dallas resigned his honourable station, and returned to the practice of the law in Philadelphia. His business was considerable, and his talents as an advocate were employed, not only at home, but from almost every quarter of the Union. In the midst of his brilliant prospects, exposure to cold, and great professional exertions in a very important cause, brought on an attack of the gout in his stomach, at Trenton, of which he died, January 16, 1817.

Mr. Dallas was gifted with a quick and powerful mind, and as a statesman he displayed remarkable energy and extensive information.

WILLIAM EUSTIS.

The first secretary of war under the administration of President Madison, was Dr. William Eustis, of Massachusetts, who was born at Boston, in 1753, and graduated at Cambridge in 1772. At the commencement of the Revolution he was a student in medicine with Dr. Joseph Warren, on whose recommendation he was early appointed surgeon of the regiment of artillery then in Cambridge. "In all the duties pertaining to his office, Dr. Eustis was found faithful, humane, and indefatigable." At the termination of the war, he began his professional practice in Boston. He was two years of the council during the administration of Governor Sullivan; and in 1800 was elected a member of Congress. In 1809 he was appointed secretary of war, but soon retired from that department. In 1815 he was appointed ambassador to Holland, and in 1821 was chosen member of Congress. When Governor Brooks retired from office, he succeeded to the chair of state "under circumstances peculiarly auspicious to a happy administration."

Dr. Eustis died in the city of Boston, after a short illness, during his attendance at the general court, in the session of February, 1825, at the age of seventy-two years. He was a man of fine abilities, profound learning, and extraordinary application. He was evidently out of his element when he served as secretary of war. He lacked energy, decision, and familiarity with extensive systems of military operations. But his high reputation suffered no diminution because of his failure to meet the demands of an uncongenial sphere. The fault rested with those who had selected him for such a position.

JOHN ARMSTRONG.

General John Armstrong, distinguished as a war minister and military annalist, was born at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, in 1758. When eighteen he joined the army as a volunteer, about the commencement of the Revolution, was in the Northern campaign under Washington, and fought under him at Princeton. Here he distinguished himself by his bravery, and when General Mercer fell, received him in his arms. He afterward joined the staff of General Gates, re-

ceived the rank of major, and acted as such until the peace. He was author of the celebrated Newburg addresses, which produced an intense sensation throughout the army.

Major Armstrong was secretary of the State of Pennsylvania, during the gubernatorial term of Dr. Franklin, and subsequently member of the old Congress. About the year 1789 he married a daughter of Chancellor Livingston. In 1800 he was chosen United States senator from New York, and, while still serving in that capacity, received the appointment of minister to France, from President Jefferson, a station which he filled six years.

Soon after the declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain in 1812, he was appointed a brigadier-general in the United States army, and assigned to the command of the district embracing the city and harbour of New York; and, in February of the following year, he succeeded Dr. Eustis as secretary of war. This office he accepted with the greatest reluctance, having no confidence in the fitness of the generals whom the president (Mr. Madison) had appointed to the chief command of the American forces, and expecting only defeat and disaster until they should be superseded by younger, and more active as well as more able men. They had, it is true, seen and done some service in the Revolution, but only in subordinate capacities; and, becoming enervated by a repose of thirty years, they had, according to General Armstrong, "lost all ambitious aspirations, while they had forgotten all they ever knew, and were ignorant of the later improvements in military science." In this condition of things, the new secretary of war adopted the step, with difficulty acquiesced in by Mr. Madison, of transferring his department of the government from Washington to Sackett's Harbour, that he might be near the scene of the operations to be directed, from the State of New York, against Canada. But even his presence was unable to counteract the evils resulting from the mistaken appointments which had been made. The generals in command were not deterred from setting aside his instructions as to the plan of the campaign (of 1813;) and, superadding to their other disqualifications that of quarrelling among themselves, the result of the efforts made for the conquest of Canada was precisely such as General Armstrong, before going into office, had predicted as likely, under the circumstances, to ensue. The capture of Washington, in August, 1814, led to General Armstrong's retirement from the war office, an act which terminated his political career. That no especial blame could be attached to him for this untoward event, must be manifest, when we are told that the individual (General Winder) who

was placed at the head of the forces which had been assembled for the defence of the District of Columbia, and who commanded against the enemy in the action at Bladensburg, had been appointed by the president to this post "against the advice of the secretary," as also, that the latter had, under a decision of the president, been constrained "to leave the military functionaries to a discharge of their own duties, on their own responsibility." Public opinion, however, without any minute inquiry into the causes of the disaster which had happened, very naturally, perhaps, fixed upon the head of the war department of the administration as a principal object of blame. Mr. Madison, though aware of the injustice of the clamour raised against the secretary, and in no wise disposed to take any step of a nature calculated to affect the reputation of this officer injuriously, was induced, from motives of precaution, to yield to it to a certain extent. He intimated to General Armstrong that a brief visit to his family would give time for the ebullition of passion and prejudice to subside, when he would be able to return and resume the functions of his office under more favourable circumstances. But the general regarded this intimation as itself an act of injustice, and felt indignant at its having been given. Determining to exercise his functions wholly or not at all, he sent in his resignation, which the president accepted.

In his retirement, General Armstrong's pen was employed on various subjects connected with the public good, or belonging to the history of his own times. Among the fruits of his literary labours, we have a treatise upon gardening, and another upon agriculture, that are held in high esteem; a review of General Wilkinson's memoirs, in which he handles the author with great severity; several biographical notices; and a history, in two volumes, of the last war. It was his intention to leave behind him a history of the war of the Revolution, a work in which he had made some progress, and which, had he been permitted to finish it, would, there is no doubt, have been invested with no ordinary interest, from the fact of his personal knowledge of the distinguished men, and most of the important events of that period. Toward the latter part of the year 1842, he fell into a decline, and gradually wasted away: he breathed his last, in the full possession of his mental faculties, and in the eighty-fifth year of his age, on the 1st day of April, 1843.*

General Armstrong was a very decided Democrat in political principle, and one of the ablest champions of that party. He was

* Frost's American Generals.

gifted with a mind quick and comprehensive, and, by application, he had greatly improved his advantages. He was one of the most powerful political writers of his day, and his works prove that he was almost unrivalled among his countrymen as a military historian.

WILLIAM H. CRAWFORD.

William Harris Crawford was born in Nelson county, Virginia, on the 24th of February, 1772. At the age of fourteen, he emigrated with his parents to Georgia. For several years, Mr. Crawford was engaged in agricultural pursuits, during which time his towering genius made a gradual advancement to the temple of science and of knowledge, under the private tuition of Mr. Waddell, the late president of the University of Georgia. On completing his academic course, Mr. Crawford took charge of the academy in Augusta; and employed the time not required in the seminary, in prosecuting a course of legal study, which, by the time he had arrived to the age of thirty, had fitted him for the practice of the law.

Soon after his admission to the bar, he was one of the three gentlemen appointed to prepare a digest of the laws of the State, the labour of which was principally borne by him: and the work, completed in a masterly manner, was received and published by authority of the legislature. His professional career now opened to him a wider field of emolument and reputation. The excellence of his understanding, and the superiority of his intellect, soon brought him into public life, where he displayed to advantage, those powers with which nature had so eminently gifted him.

He was now called to a seat in the legislature of his State, which he continued to fill for four successive years, with advantage to himself and his constituents.

In 1807 he was elected to the senate of the United States; and took his seat in that body, unknown to every member in it, and equally new to all the executive officers, having been in no way before connected with the administration of the federal government.

Pursuing an undeviating course in his politics, and attached to the Democratic party, the unbending integrity of his character, and his powerful talents, soon marked him out as one of the most popular and prominent members of either house. He now became a common

centre of attraction, and, by his frankness and conciliatory manners, attached to him friends from both parties.

In the session of 1811 and '12, his zeal and talents in the debates of that interesting period often brought him into conspicuous notice; and, by his firm and manly conduct, was considered the main stay of the administration in the senate.

In 1813, on the death of Mr. Barlow, he was appointed to succeed him as minister plenipotentiary to the court of France, to which he repaired without delay.

The catastrophe of the great campaign of 1813, in Europe, and the glorious termination of our war with England, superseded the investigations contemplated in the mission to France, and afforded Mr. Crawford an early opportunity to return home, in compliance with his own arrangements and stipulations at the time of his departure from Washington. He came home in the same vessel with his fast friend, the lamented Bayard, and on his arrival took charge of the war department, to which he had been appointed in anticipation of his return. On the resignation of Mr. Dallas, he was transferred by President Madison to the treasury department. He continued to hold that office until the retirement of Mr. Monroe in 1825. He declined a reappointment tendered him by Mr. Adams. At the period of the election of Mr. Adams, Mr. Crawford was an unsuccessful candidate—partly on account of his ill-health, which would for a time, at least, have disqualified him for the arduous duties of the office of president.

In 1827, Mr. Crawford was appointed judge of the northern circuit of Georgia. Subsequently he was twice elected to the legislature. But his health now entirely failed, and he died on the 15th of September, 1834.

Mr. Crawford was a statesman of high ability and a politician of great influence.

PAUL HAMILTON.

Paul Hamilton was distinguished as a patriot and statesman. He was a native of South Carolina. When the Revolutionary struggle commenced, he was a young man, and he embraced the cause of his country with conspicuous zeal and served with ability on many important occasions. In 1804, Mr. Hamilton was chosen governor of South Carolina, and he continued to hold that office until 1806, discharging its duties to the general satisfaction of the State. In 1809 he was appointed secretary of the navy, an office he held when the second war with Great Britain commenced. In 1813 he retired from all public office, and in 1816 he died, generally lamented as an honest and patriotic servant of his country.

WILLIAM JONES.

The successor of Paul Hamilton as secretary of the navy was William Jones, a distinguished citizen of Rhode Island. He was born at Newport in 1754. At the breaking out of the struggle for independence, he entered the service of his country and became a captain of marines. He participated in many trying scenes of the war, and established his reputation as a brave and unflinching patriot. At the capitulation of Charleston to the forces of Sir Henry Clinton, Captain Jones was made prisoner. At the conclusion of the war, he returned to his native State, and took an active part in civil affairs. He was elected to the legislature, and several times chosen speaker of the house of representatives. In 1810 he was chosen governor of Rhode Island. In 1813, a critical period of the second war with Great Britain, he was selected by President Madison to succeed Mr. Hamilton as the head of the navy department. For this position he was peculiarly fitted by his long service and experience, and the manner in which he discharged the duties of his position gave universal satisfaction, at a time when the navy was the pride and hope of the country. In 1817, Mr. Jones retired from public life; and in 1822 he died at the age of sixty-eight years. He was a man of much energy and decision of character.

BENJAMIN W. CROWNINSHIELD.

Mr. Crowninshield was born at Salem, Massachusetts, December 29th, 1773. In youth he received only a common school education, but he possessed energy of character, and great natural abilities, and in a few years rose to a much higher and more responsible social position. Before he was twenty-one, he commanded a ship in the East India trade, and afterwards made several voyages to the East Indies in that capacity. He then became one of the most wealthy merchants in Salem; and from the commencement of the present century till the close of the war in 1812, he carried on an extensive business with the East Indies, assisted by his father and brothers.

He held various municipal offices under the state legislature from 1808 to 1811, and was appointed, by President Madison, secretary of the navy in 1814. In 1821 he represented the city of Boston in the state legislature, and afterwards was sent to Congress.

He died on the 3d of February, 1851, in Boston, from an affection of the heart, in the 77th year of his age.

WILLIAM PINCKNEY.

William Pinckney was one of the finest geniuses who has yet filled the office of attorney-general of the United States. He was born in Annapolis, Maryland, March 17, 1764. His father was a native of England, and favoured the cause of the mother country during the Revolutionary struggle, while his son early avowed a decided attachment to that of his native land. After receiving such an education as the imperfect means of the country could then afford, he commenced the study of medicine, but soon relinquished it, and entered, in 1783, into the office of the late Judge Chase, then an eminent member of the Maryland bar. In 1786 he was admitted to practice, and soon gave indications of his future distinction. His style of speaking, however, in the outset, was entirely different from its subsequent character. In 1788 he was elected a delegate from Hartford county to the convention of the State which ratified the constitution of the United States, and likewise a representative to the house of delegates. Soon after taking his seat, he made an animated speech upon the report of a committee appointed to con-

sider the laws of Maryland prohibiting the voluntary emancipation of slaves; and, in the ensuing session of 1789, pronounced another and superior discourse on the same subject. In both he breathed sentiments of the purest philanthropy. It the year just mentioned, he was married at Havre de Grace, Maryland, to the sister of Commodore Rodgers. In 1790 he was elected a member of Congress; but his election was contested on the ground of his not residing in the district for which he was chosen. He made, himself, a powerful argument in support of his claim; but, after obtaining a favourable decision, he declined the honour, in consequence of his professional pursuits, and the state of his private affairs.

In 1792 he was chosen a member of the executive council of Maryland, and continued in that station until November, 1795; when, being elected a delegate to the legislature from Anne Arundel county, he resigned his seat at the council board, of which at the time he was president. During all this period, in which he attained a distinguished political rank in his State, he was so zealous and indefatigable in professional pursuits, that he gradually rose to the head of the bar. His acuteness, dexterity, and ardour in the transaction of business, were combined with great readiness, spirit and vigour in debate, and with a rich and fluent elocution, adorned with the finest imagery, drawn from classical lore, and a vivid fancy, the effect of which was increased by the manliness of his figure, a sonorous and flexible voice, and a general animation and gracefulness of delivery. In 1796 he was selected by President Washington as one of the commissioners of the part of the United States, under the seventh article of Mr. Jay's treaty with Great Britain. He embarked for London, with his family, in July of the same year, and remained absent until 1804, earnestly engaged in the business of his mission, and also in attending to the claim of the State of Maryland for a large amount of public property invested in the stock of the Bank of England before the Revolution, and which had become the subject of a complicated chancery litigation. His successful exertions in the latter affair were suitably acknowledged by the State of Maryland after his return. He recommenced in Baltimore his professional labours with renewed ardour, and with no diminution of legal knowledge, as he had continued his habits of diligent study during his residence abroad, and had derived all the advantage which could be obtained from frequent intercourse with the first lawyers of England and attendance on its courts of justice. He had, besides, employed a portion of his time in supplying the defects of his early education, with regard to English and classical literature, and, by his applica-

tion to the subject of elocution and the English language, he had added to his natural facility and fluency a copiousness of elegant diction which graced even his conversation, and imparted new strength and beauty to his forensic style.

In 1805 he was appointed attorney-general of Maryland. In the following year he was again made minister extraordinary to treat with the British government, in conjunction with Mr. Monroe, then minister resident at the court of St. James, upon various subjects of difference between the United States and England. In 1807, Mr. Monroe returned home, and Mr. Pinckney was left in London as minister resident. His exertions to accommodate matters between the two governments terminating fruitlessly, he took his leave of the prince regent, and embarked for the United States in 1811. In September of the same year, he was elected a member of the senate of Maryland, and, in the succeeding December, accepted the office of attorney-general of the United States, tendered to him by Mr. Madison. When war was declared between Great Britain and this country, in 1813, he was chosen to command a volunteer corps raised in Baltimore for local defence, which was attached as a battalion of riflemen to the third brigade of Maryland militia. He was present, and behaved with great gallantry at the unfortunate battle of Bladensburg, where he received a severe wound. After the peace, he resigned his command.

In 1814, a bill having been brought into the house of representatives, requiring the attorney-general to reside at the seat of government, Mr. Pinckney resigned the office. In 1815 he was chosen a member of Congress from Baltimore, and delivered an able speech on the treaty-making power. In 1816 he was a third time invested with diplomatic functions, being appointed by Mr. Madison special minister to the court of Naples, to demand from it indemnity for the losses which our merchants had sustained by the seizure and confiscation of their property in 1809, during the reign of Murat; and also minister resident at St. Petersburg. He was induced to accept those appointments by the necessity of recruiting his mind and body, almost worn out by his intense application to professional duties. He first proceeded to Naples, where he had various conferences with the minister of foreign affairs, and addressed him an elaborate note, the answer to which, however, he could not wait for, being obliged, by his instructions, to repair at once to the Russian capital. He returned home in 1818. In 1820 he took his seat in Congress as a senator from Maryland, and made an elaborate and powerful speech against the clause in the bill for the admission of Missouri into the Union,

which prohibited the introduction of slaves into the new State. He continued also to prosecute his engagements at the bar with his wonted ardour; and to his professional zeal, indeed, he may be said to have fallen a victim. In the session of the supreme court in 1822, he had exerted himself in the investigation and argument of a cause in which he felt particular interest, at a time when the state of his health unfitted him for application to study and business. A severe attack of indisposition, February 17, was the consequence; and, after a period of acute suffering, during parts of which he was in a state of delirium, he expired on the 25th of the same month, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

As a lawyer, Mr. Pinckney was pre-eminent. He presented a rare union of an intense love of his profession, almost unparalleled industry, and a genius of wonderful grasp. He entered the lists with his antagonist armed like the ancient cavalier, *cap-a-pie*. In cases which embraced all the complications and intricacies of law, where reason seems to be lost in the ocean of technical perplexity, and darkness and obscurity assume the dignified character of science, he displayed an extent of research, a range of investigation, a lucidness of reasoning, and a fervour and brilliancy of thought, that excited wonder and elicited admiration. On the driest, most abstract, and uninteresting questions of law, when no mind could anticipate such an occurrence, he would blaze forth in all the enchanting exuberance of a chastened, but rich and vivid imagination. In the higher grades of eloquence, where the passions and feelings of our nature are roused to rapture or lulled to tranquillity, he was still the great magician whose power was resistless, and whose touch was fascination. His eloquence was majestic, and overwhelming. The personal appearance of this great orator was commanding and graceful.

James Monroe

JAMES MONROE

Was born in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia, on the 28th of April, 1758. He graduated at William and Mary, and having entered as a cadet in the American army in 1776, he was soon after appointed lieutenant. He was in the battle of Harlaem Heights, White Plains, and Trenton. At the latter, perceiving that the enemy were endeavouring to form a six-gun battery at the head of King street, Lieutenant Monroe, with Captain William Washington, rushed forward with the advance guard, drove the artillerists from their guns, and took two pieces which they were in the act of firing. These officers were both wounded in this successful enterprise, and for his gallant conduct, Lieutenant Monroe was promoted to a captaincy. He was aid to Lord Stirling in the campaigns of 1777 and 1778, and was at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, in which actions he distinguished himself. By the recommendation of Washington, he was appointed to raise a regiment, of which he was to be given the command; but, in the exhausted State of Virginia, he failed to raise his regiment, and therefore resumed the study of the law under Jefferson, then governor of the State. He was active as a volunteer in the militia, and in the subsequent invasions of Virginia, and in 1780 visited the Southern army, under De Kalb, as a military commissioner, at the request of Mr. Jefferson.

In 1782 he was a member of the Virginia legislature, and of the executive council, and in 1783, at the age of twenty-four, a member of Congress, in which he served three years. He was always at his post, and engaged in the most arduous duties. He introduced a resolution to vest in Congress the power to regulate the trade with all the States, and other important resolutions. He was appointed a commissioner to settle the boundary between New York and Massa-

chusetts. In 1787 he was again a member of the Virginia legislature, and in 1788 of the Virginia convention. From 1790 to 1794 he was a member of the United States senate. From 1794 to 1796 he was minister plenipotentiary to France, and he was recalled by Washington, under an implied censure. In 1799, under the nomination of Mr. Madison, he was appointed governor of Virginia. In 1803 he was minister extraordinary to France, to act in conjunction with Mr. Livingston, the resident minister. This mission was of the utmost consequence, as it terminated in the acquisition of Louisiana. In the same year, Mr. Monroe was appointed minister to London, and in 1804, to Spain. In 1806, in conjunction with William Pinckney, he was appointed minister to London, where he pursed the negotiations with the Fox ministry. Mr. Monroe having been prominently brought forward as a candidate for the presidency, as the successor of Mr. Jefferson, returned from London; but soon after withdrew from the canvass. In 1810 he was again elected to the legislature, and again appointed governor. He was appointed secretary of state, November 26, 1811. The war department being in a very embarrassed state, on the departure of its head, General Armstrong, Mr. Monroe undertook it, and made extraordinary and very useful exertions to help the war on the lakes and the defence of New Orleans. After he had reduced to order the war department, he resumed the duties of the department of state, which he continued to exercise until, in 1817, he was chosen successor to James Madison in the presidency.

Mr. Monroe was inaugurated president of the United States, on the 4th of March, 1817. As Mr. Monroe had been a leading spirit in President Madison's councils, his accession to office was followed by no remarkable changes. But as the chief-magistrate, he was more active and energetic, and made a more conspicuous figure in office than his predecessor. During the summer of 1817, Mr. Monroe visited all the Northern and Eastern States, and was received with every demonstration of affection and respect. This year a treaty was concluded by commissioners appointed by the president of the United States, and the chiefs of the Wyandot, Delaware, Shawanee, Seneca, Ottowa, Chippewa, and Potowattamie tribes of Indians, by which these tribes ceded to the United States all lands which they claimed within the limits of Ohio. The Indians were, at their option, to remain on the ceded lands, subject to the laws of the United States. The Territory of Mississippi was this year admitted into the Union of the States.

A band of adventurers, who pretended to act under the authority

of the South American States, took possession of Amelia Island, near the boundary of Georgia, with the avowed design of invading Florida. As this island had been the subject of negotiation with the government of Spain, as an indemnity for losses by spoliations, or in exchange for lands of equal value beyond the Mississippi, the measure excited a sentiment of surprise and disapprobation; which was increased when it was found that the island was made a channel for the illicit introduction of slaves from Africa into the United States, an asylum for fugitive slaves from the neighbouring States, and a port for smuggling of every kind. The United States sent out a force, which took possession of the islands, and put a stop to the illicit trade.

The political feuds which had, since the Revolution, occasioned so much animosity, were now gradually subsiding; and it was an object with the administration to remove old party prejudices, and promote union among the people. A spirit of improvement was spreading over the country: roads and canals were constructed in almost all parts of the Union, and the facilities for travelling and for conveying merchandise and produce were continually increasing. The subject of education received great attention, particularly in its primary departments. These improvements were, however, made by the State goverments, among which the wealthy State of New York, at whose head was the illustrious De Witt Clinton, took the lead. Congress caught the spirit of the times, and manifested a desire to employ the resources of the nation for these objects; and though no doubt arose as to the expediency of such a course, yet the power of that body for carrying on such a system of internal improvement was questioned and debated. It was the opinion of President Monroe that the general government had not this power, and could not obtain it except by an amendment of the constitution, which he recommended to the States.

In the first year of Mr. Monroe's administration, an arrangement was concluded with the British government for the reduction of the naval force of Great Britain and the United States, on the lakes; and it was provided that neither party should keep in service on lake Ontario or Champlain more than one armed vessel, and on lake Erie, or any of the upper lakes, more than two, to be armed with one gun only.

For the security of the inland frontiers of the United States, military posts were established at the mouth of the Yellowstone river, on the Missouri, about eighteen hundred miles above its

junction with the Mississippi, and at the mouth of St. Peter's on the Mississippi.

During the year 1818, the United States became engaged in a war with the Seminole Indians, who occupied the lands lying on the confines of the United States and Florida; the greater part, however, lying within the dominions of the king of Spain. Outlaws from the Creek nation, negroes who had fled from their masters in the United States, and the Seminole Indians, had united in committing depredations upon the lives and property of the citizens of the United States. For many months the Southern frontier was exposed to savage and bloody incursions; the most horrid massacres had become so frequent, that the inhabitants were obliged to flee from their homes for security. The hostile spirit of the Indians was strengthened by Arbuthnot and Ambrister, two English emissaries, who had taken up their residence among them, for the purposes of trade. They were also incited by one Francis, whom they regarded as a prophet. In December, 1817, a detachment of forty men, under the command of Lieutenant Scott, was sent to the mouth of the river Appalachicola, to assist in removing some military stores to Fort Scott. The party in returning were fired upon by a body of Indians who lay in ambush upon the bank of the river, and six only escaped. Lieutenant Scott was one of the first who fell. Notwithstanding the offenders were demanded by General Gaines, the commanding officer on that frontier, the chiefs refused to deliver them up to punishment. General Jackson, with a body of Tennesseans, was now ordered to the protection of the Southern frontier. In several skirmishes with the Indians, he defeated and dispersed them; and persuaded that the Spaniards were active in fomenting the Seminole war, and furnishing the Indians with supplies, he entered Florida, and took possession of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola. He took as prisoners, Arbuthnot, Ambrister, and the Indian prophet Francis. A court-martial was called, at which General Gaines presided, for the trial of Arbuthnot and Ambrister. Arbuthnot was tried on the three following charges:—First, "for exciting and stirring up the Creek Indians to war against the United States and her citizens, he being a subject of Great Britain, with whom the United States are at peace." Second, "for acting as a spy, aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war." Third, "for exciting the Indians to murder and destroy William Hambly and Edmund Doyle, confiscate their property, and causing their arrest, with a view to their condemnation to death, and the seizure of their property, they being citizens of Spain; on

account of their active and zealous exertions to maintain peace between Spain, the United States, and the Indians." He was found guilty of the first and second charge, omitting the words "acting as a spy," and sentenced to be hung. Ambrister was tried on the following charges:—First, "aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war, he being a subject of Great Britain, who was at peace with the United States, and late an officer in the British colonial marines." Second, "leading and commanding the Lower Creek Indians, in carrying on war against the United States." The court-martial found him guilty of both charges, and sentenced him to be shot.

The treaty between the United States and Spain stipulated that the Spanish should keep such forces as would enable them to restrain the hostilities of the Indians inhabiting their respective colonies. It was the refusal of Spain to do this, which produced the necessity of carrying the war into her provinces. The massacres committed by the savages left no alternative but to suffer the frontier settlements of Georgia to remain exposed to the mercy of those barbarians, or to carry the war into Florida. Pensacola and St. Marks were restored to Spain, by order of the president.

The Congress of this year passed a bill to admit Illinois Territory into the Union, by the name of the State of Illinois. Treaties of commerce were concluded with Great Britain and Sweden. In the treaty with the former, the northern boundary of the United States, from the Lake of the Woods to the Stony mountains, was fixed. Congress also passed a law abolishing internal duties. They passed an act providing for the indigent officers and soldiers of the Revolution, by which every officer who had served nine months at any period of the Revolutionary war, and whose annual income did not exceed one hundred dollars, received a pension of twenty dollars a month; and every needy private soldier who had served that length of time received eight.

This year the Chickasaws ceded to the government of the United States, all lands west of the Tennessee river in the States of Kentucky and Tennessee.

In 1819, the condition of those tribes living within the territories of the United States attracted the attention of the government, and a most humane policy dictated its measures with regard to them. The sum of ten thousand dollars annually, was appropriated by Congress for the purpose of establishing schools among them, and to promote in other ways their civilization. By means of the missionary societies already established in the United States, missionaries

were supported among the Indians, and success in many instances crowned their efforts.

On the 23d of February, 1819, a treaty was negotiated at Washington, between the secretary of state and the Spanish minister, by which Spain ceded to the United States, East and West Florida, and the adjacent islands. The government of the United States was to exonerate Spain from the claims which the citizens of the United States had against that nation, on account of injuries and spoliations, and Congress was to satisfy these claims to an amount not exceeding five millions of dollars. Three commissioners were to be appointed by the president with the advice of the senate, to examine and decide upon the amount and validity of all claims included by the treaty. The contracting parties renounced all claims to indemnities for any of the recent acts of their respective officers in Florida. This treaty was ratified by the president and senate of the United States, and sent to Spain, when the king very unexpectedly refused to sanction it. Don Onis, the Spanish minister, was recalled. Another minister was sent to the United States to make complaints of unfriendly policy on the part of the American government, and to demand explanations respecting the imputed system of hostility on the part of the American citizens against the subjects and dominion of the king of Spain. Explanations were made, and it was satisfactorily shown that there had been no system of hostility pursued by the citizens of the United States.

In October, 1820, Ferdinand ratified the treaty between France and Spain, but did not give possession of Florida until July, 1821. In 1820, Alabama Territory was admitted into the Union of the States. The Territory of Missouri was separated, and another, called the Arkansas territory, formed.

A petition was presented to Congress this year from the Territory of Missouri, praying for authority to form a State government, and to be admitted into the Union. A bill was accordingly introduced for that purpose. This, with an amendment, prohibiting slavery within the new State, passed the house of representatives, but was arrested in the senate. The district of Maine also presented a memorial to Congress, praying to be separated from Massachusetts, to be authorized to form its own constitution, and to be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the other States. The two bills for the admission of Maine and Missouri were joined, but not without much opposition from the advocates of the restriction in the Missouri bill. Upon this subject, the members of Congress were divided into two parties; those from the non-slaveholding States

were in favour of the restriction, while those from the South warmly opposed it. Much debate took place, and at no time had the parties in the Congress of the United States been so marked by a geographical division, or so much actuated by feelings dangerous to the Union of the States, as at this time. Nor was the seat of government the only place where this subject was discussed; in all parts of the Union it attracted the attention of the people. Many of the Northern States called meetings, and published spirited resolutions, expressive of their fears of perpetuating slavery, and their approbation of the restriction. The members from the South opposed the restriction partly on the ground of self-defence. They did not consider that the admission of Missouri, without any restriction, would tend in any degree to perpetuate slavery. After much discussion a compromise was effected, and a bill passed for the admission of Missouri without any restriction, but with the inhibition of slavery throughout the Territories of the United States, north of 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude.

The bill for the admission of Maine passed without restriction or amendment; and, in 1820, Maine became independent of Massachusetts, and assumed her proper rank as one of the United States.

Missouri was not declared independent until August, 1821. Previously to the passage of the bill for its admission, the people of Missouri formed a State constitution; a provision of which required the legislature to pass a law "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to and settling in the State." When the constitution was presented to Congress, this provision was strenuously opposed. The contest occupied a great part of the session, but Missouri was finally admitted on the condition that no laws should be passed by which any free citizens of the United States should be prevented from enjoying those rights within that State, to which they were entitled by the Constitution of the United States. This year Mr. Monroe entered upon his second term of office, having been re-elected to the presidency by nearly a unanimous vote.

A territorial government was established in Florida in 1822. In June a convention of navigation and commerce, on terms of reciprocal and equal advantage, was concluded between France and the United States. The ports of the West India Islands were opened to the United States by an act of the British parliament.

The American commerce had for several years suffered severely in consequence of the depredations committed by pirates. The West Indian seas were infested by these marauders, and transactions of the most flagrant and outrageous character had become frequent.

Great quantities of property were seized by them, and their captives were often murdered in the most inhuman manner. They respected no law, and the flag of no nation. An event occured this year which excited general attention, and showed that the evil had become so alarming as to call loudly for the strong arm of government to interpose for the protection of its citizens. The Alligator, United States schooner, was about entering the harbour of Matanzas, when information was received that two American vessels, which the pirates had just captured, were lying a short distance from that place. The Alligator was immediately ordered to their relief. An engagement with the pirates ensued, in which the Americans were victorious. They recaptured five American vessels which were in possession of the pirates, and took one piratical schooner. But Allen, the commander of the Alligator, was wounded in the engagement, and died in a few hours. His death excited much feeling throughout the United States.

In the message which President Monroe this year sent to Congress, he invited their attention to the expediency of recognising the independence of the South American republics. He stated, that throughout the contest between those colonies and the parent country, the United States had remained neutral, and had fulfilled, with the utmost impartiality, all the obligations incident to that character. Some time had elapsed since the provinces had declared themselves independent nations, and had enjoyed that independence free from invasion. For three years Spain had not sent a single corps of troops into any part of that country. The delays which had been observed in making a decision on this important subject would afford an unequivocal proof of the respect entertained by the United States for Spain, and of their determination not to interfere with her rights. Mr. Monroe remarked, that, "in proposing this measure, it is not contemplated to change thereby in the slightest manner, the friendly relations with either of the parties, but to observe in all respects as heretofore, should the war be continued, the most perfect neutrality between them." The committee on foreign relations, to whom this question was referred, reported in favour of this measure, and recommended that a sum should be appropriated to enable the president to give due effect to such recognition. Ministers plenipotentiary were appointed to Mexico, Buenos Ayres, Columbia, and Chili.

Ever since the year 1816, the tariff had attracted the attention of the people throughout the Union, and from time to time the subject had been brought before Congress; but, with the exception of the

small protection afforded to coarse cotton cloths, nothing had yet been done for the encouragement of American manufactures. Notwithstanding the pressure of the times, and the many disadvantages under which they laboured, the manufactures of cotton, after they recovered from the first shock, had proved successful. Excepting fine fabrics, which were not manufactured to any extent in America, domestic cottons almost supplied the country, and considerable quantities were exported to South America. Establishments for printing calicoes had been erected in a few places, and in some instances the manufacture of lace had been attempted.

In the support of these establishments, independent of the protection of government, and in defiance of the obstacles which opposed them, individuals and manufacturing companies displayed great energy and perseverance. During this period, the friends of manufactures had increased in numbers, and in zeal for the cause. This year the subject of a new tariff was again brought before Congress, but was vehemently opposed. The grounds of the opposition to the bill were, that it would injure the commerce and agriculture of the country, and, by lessening the public revenue, compel a resort to a system of excise and taxation. That it would diminish the exports of the United States, as other nations would not purchase articles of any kind unless the produce of their industry was received in exchange. That the country was not prepared for the successful establishment of manufactures, on account of the high price of labour; and that manufactures would, under a favourable concurrence of circumstances, flourish without the protection of government. After much discussion, the bill, with some amendments, passed; and it proved effectual in affording the desired protection to cotton goods.

On the 15th of August, 1824, General La Fayette, the friend of America, arrived in the harbour of New York. He did not stop at the city, but proceeded to the residence of the vice-president at Staten Island. Congress, participating in the warm feeling of esteem and gratitude which pervaded the whole nation, had given him an invitation to visit America, and had proposed sending a national ship for his conveyance. He accepted the invitation, although he declined the offer of a national vessel.

His reception and his progress throughout the country, the independence of which he had helped to establish, were attended with almost unexampled demonstrations of joy and gratitude. Never had a man more reason to be proud of the approval which his heroic devotion to liberty so enthusiastically obtained.

The administration of Mr. Monroe was during a time of profound peace. In this period, sixty million dollars of the national debt were discharged. The Floridas were peaceably acquired, and the boundaries of the United States extended to the Pacific Ocean. The internal taxes were repealed, the military establishment reduced to its narrowest limits of efficiency, the organization of the army improved, the independence of the South American nations recognised, progress made in the suppression of the slave-trade, and the civilization of the Indians advanced.

In the latter part of 1824, a very exciting contest for the presidency occurred. The candidates were John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and William H. Crawford. The electors could effect no choice, and the election then devolved upon the house of representatives, by which body Mr. Adams was chosen to the chief-magistracy. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was elected to the vice-presidency. Mr. Monroe retired from office with the esteem of all parties.

It is a high compliment to the firmness, judgment, and sagacity of Mr. Monroe, that he proclaimed to the world the determination of the United States not to suffer any European government to interfere with the internal concerns of the independent South American governments. The well-timed expression of this sentiment put an end to all rumours of any armed intervention in the affairs of Spanish America.

In the late stages of his life, he was associated with the ex-presidents Jefferson and Madison, in founding the University of Virginia. Subsequently, he was chosen a member of the convention of 1829–30, for revising the State constitution, and presided over its deliberations. He did not disdain to act as justice of the peace in Loudon.

Mr. Monroe died at New York, July 4, 1831, the anniversary of American independence, like the ex-presidents Jefferson and Adams. Colonel Monroe's biography is intimately and honourably connected with the civil and military history of the United States. He was one of the leaders of the Democratic or Jefferson party, and involved in most of the party questions and occurrences by which the country was divided and agitated. He possessed a very energetic, persevering spirit; a vigorous mind, and extraordinary powers of application. In his unlimited devotion to public business, he neglected his private affairs. He retired from office extremely deep in debt; a situation from which he was relieved, though when almost too late, by liberal appropriations of Congress to satisfy the large claims which he pre-

ferred on the government for moneys disbursed and debts incurred on its account.

Mr. Monroe had a striking personal appearance, being about six feet in stature, with strongly marked features, and blue, penetrating eyes. His bearing was dignified and courteous. He was no orator, and but a tolerable writer. But his energy and sagacity were great, and he was invaluable in action.

DANIEL D. TOMPKINS.

Daniel D. Tompkins was vice-president of the United States during both terms of President Monroe's administration, and his popularity was almost as great as that of the president. He was born on the 21st of June, 1774, at Scarzdale, West Chester county, New York. He was educated in Columbia College, in the city of New York, where he was distinguished among his companions by the progress which he made in knowledge. He next studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1797. In 1801 he was chosen to be a member of the convention for revising the constitution of his native State; in 1802, a member of its legislature; and, in 1804, one of its representatives in Congress. In the last mentioned year, he was also appointed to a seat on the bench of the New York supreme court; and, in 1807, he was elected to fill the office of governor, which he continued to do until 1817, when he resigned it in consequence of his election to be vice-president of the United States. In 1821 he was one of the delegates to the convention which was convened at Albany, for the framing of a new State constitution, and was selected to preside over the deliberations of that body. His death occurred on the 11th of June, 1825, at his residence on Staten Island.

Mr. Tompkins was a man of indomitable energy, and great political tact.

GEORGE GRAHAM.

The members of the cabinet during President Monroe's administration, were as follows:—Secretary of state, John Quincy Adams; secretary of the treasury, William H. Crawford; secretaries of war, George Graham and John C. Calhoun; secretaries of the navy,

Smith Thompson, John Rodgers, and Samuel L. Southard; attorney-general, William Wirt; Return J. Meigs and John McLean were the postmasters-general. GEORGE GRAHAM who succeeded William H. Crawford in the post of secretary of war, was a native of Virginia. Previous to his appointment, he had not been very prominent in political life, but had taken an active part in the local politics of his native State. He did not hold office for any considerable length of time, being succeeded by John C. Calhoun, in October of the same year in which he was appointed.

RICHARD RUSH.

THIS distinguished statesman was the son of Dr. Benjamin Rush, the eminent patriot and philanthropist of the Revolution. He was born in Philadelphia, in 1780. After graduating at Princeton College, he entered upon the study of the law at Philadelphia. In 1811 he was appointed attorney-general of Pennsylvania, and, shortly afterward, he was named comptroller of the treasury of the United States. When James Monroe succeeded to the presidency, he called ubon Mr. Rush to perform the duties of secretary of state, until the return of John Quincy Adams from Europe. After the arrival of that distinguished statesman, Mr. Rush was appointed minister to England, and he remained in that situation some years, discharging its duties to the satisfaction of the country. He negotiated a number of important treaties. Mr. Rush subsequently published an account of his negotiations, interspersed with interesting anecdotes of distinguished personages—a very entertaining work. On the accession of Mr. Adams to the presidency, in 1825, he appointed Mr. Rush secretary of the treasury. In 1836, he went to London, at the request of General Jackson, to obtain Mr. Smithson's legacy to the United States, out of the court of chancery, and he was completely successful. In 1847, President Polk appointed Mr. Rush minister to France, which office he filled with ability until the accession of General Taylor to the presidency. Mr. Rush enjoys a very high reputation for learning, decision, and general capacity for the duties of political station.

RETURN JONATHAN MEIGS.

Return Jonathan Meigs was born in Middletown, Connecticut, in 1765. He was the son of the distinguished soldier and patriot of the Revolution who bore the same name. He graduated at Yale College, studied law, and was admitted to the bar of his native town. He then removed to Ohio, and was among the first settlers at Marietta. In the winter of 1802–3 he was elected chief-justice of the supreme court of the State. The next year he resigned this office, having received from Jefferson the appointment of commandant of the United States troops and militia in the upper district of Louisiana, and shortly after was appointed one of the judges of the Territory of Louisiana. In April, 1807, he was commissioned a judge of Michigan Territory; resigned the commission in October, and, becoming a candidate for governor of Ohio, was elected, in a spirited canvass, over his competitor, General Massic; but not having the constitutional qualification of the four years' residence in the State prior to the election, his election was contested and decided against him. In the session of 1807–8, he was appointed senator in Congress, which office he afterward resigned, and was elected governor of Ohio in 1810. In the war with Great Britain, while holding the gubernatorial office, he acted with great promptness and energy. In March, 1814, having been appointed postmaster-general of the United States, he resigned that office, and continued in his new vocation until 1823, during which he managed its arduous duties to the satisfaction of Presidents Madison and Monroe. He died at Marietta, March 29, 1825. In person he was tall and finely formed, with a high retreating forehead, black eyes, and aquiline and prominent nose. His features indicated his character, and were remarkably striking, expressive of mildness, intelligence, promptness, and stability of purpose. His moral character was free from reproach, and he was benevolent, unambitious, dignified, but easy of access.

WILLIAM WIRT.

William Wirt ranks with William Pinckney, among the most brilliant lawyers and orators who have served the republic in the capacity of attorney-general. He conferred lustre upon that office

during the entire administrations of Monroe and Adams. This distinguished citizen was born at Bladensburg, Md., on the 8th of November, 1772. His parents died before he had reached his eighth year. In 1792, when twenty years of age, he commenced the practice of law at Fairfax, in the neighbouring county of Culpepper.

In 1795 he married the eldest daughter of Dr. George Gilmer, a distinguished physician, and took up his residence at Pen Park, the seat of his father-in-law, near Charlottesville; and here he was introduced to the acquaintance of Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and other persons of celebrity.

In 1799 his wife died, and he was soon after elected clerk of the house of delegates. Having performed the duties of his office two years, he was in 1802 appointed chancellor of the eastern district of Virginia, and then took up his residence at Williamsburg; and the same year he married the daughter of Colonel Gamble, of Richmond. He soon after resigned his chancellorship, and at the close of the year 1803 removed to Norfolk, and entered upon the assiduous practice of his profession. Just before he removed to Norfolk, he wrote the letters published in the Richmond Argus, under the title of "The British Spy," which were afterward collected in a small volume, and have passed through many editions. In 1806 he took up his residence in Richmond, and in the following year he greatly distinguished himself in the trial of Colonel Burr. In 1812 he wrote the greater part of a series of essays, which were originally published in the Richmond Enquirer, under the title of "The Old Bachelor," and have since, in a collected form, passed through several editions. The "Life of Patrick Henry," his largest literary production, was first published in 1817. In 1816 he was appointed by Mr. Madison the United States attorney for Virginia, and, in 1817, by Mr. Monroe, attorney-general of the United States, a post which he occupied with distinguished reputation until 1829, through the entire administrations of Monroe and Adams. In 1830, he took up his residence in Baltimore, for the remainder of his life. He died February 18, 1834, at Washington City, in his sixty-second year.

As an orator, Mr. Wirt was always brilliant, and frequently powerful. As a writer, he was occasionally exaggerated and bombastic, but generally correct and entertaining. His learning was profound, and always at command.

JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN.

A FIRM, decisive spirit and a mind of powerful grasp rendered JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN one of the leading men of his age. For about forty years he acted a bold and decided part in American politics; and in one section of the Union, his words were almost as potent as those of Mirabeau were in the French Assembly of 1789. This great statesman was born in Abbeville district, South Carolina, on the 18th of March, 1782. His father was an Irishman by birth, but during the Revolution as zealous an advocate of independence as any native of America. As a child, John C. Calhoun was remarkable for firmness of will and quickness of apprehension. As soon as he was old enough, he was sent to an ordinary country school. At the age of thirteen he was placed under the care of Mr. Waddell, in Columbia county, Georgia, for the prosecution of his studies. Soon afterward his father died, and Mr. Waddell discontinued his academy. John was then left to educate himself. He resided with Mr. Waddell, who was his brother-in-law, and, having access to a good library, employed all his leisure hours in reading. Intense application impaired his health, and his mother induced him to return home. There exercise and amusement soon restored his strength. Four years were passed upon the farm, and during that period, the education of Mr. Calhoun was almost entirely neglected.

In 1800, an incident occurred which changed the current of Mr. Calhoun's life. John had determined to become a planter; but in that year his brother James persuaded him to study for one of the learned professions. He returned to Dr. Waddell's, Georgia, where that gentleman had reopened his academy; and his progress there was so rapid that in two years he entered the junior class of Yale College. In 1804, just four years from the time he commenced the Latin grammar, he graduated with distinction. Dr. Dwight, president of the college, is said to have predicted his future eminence. Mr. Calhoun then spent three years in the study of the law, first at Litchfield, Connecticut, and then in the office of Mr. De Saussure in Charleston, South Carolina. He then presented himself for admission to the bar, (1807,) and commenced practice in the Abbeville district. His great abilities seem to have been recognised immediately, for in a very short period he was ranked with the foremost lawyers in his section of the State.

Political affairs soon engaged the attention of the young lawyer.

The attack of the Leopard on the Chesapeake agitated the whole country. A public meeting was called in the Abbeville district. Mr. Calhoun was requested to draw up the resolutions, and he performed the task so ably that he was then requested to address the meeting. He complied, and created a decided impression. At the next election he was chosen to the legislature. In that body he was active and influential, and his reputation greatly increased. In 1810, Mr. Calhoun was elected to represent his native district in the Congress of the United States. He was then thirty years old. His debut as a Congressional speaker was made on the 19th of December, 1811, when he delivered a powerful argument for the war resolutions which had been reported to the house, which at once established his reputation as a most formidable debater, and as a masterly logician. Throughout the war which followed, Mr. Calhoun supported the administration of Mr. Madison, and was considered a leader of the Republican party.

After the conclusion of the treaty of peace, Mr. Calhoun made a remarkable speech upon the treaty-making power; in the course of which he showed his independence of mind by differing with most of the leading Republicans. In 1816 he advocated a bill establishing a national bank, as a means of raising the credit of the country, and shortly afterward supported a protective tariff with rare ability. In December, 1817, President Monroe invited Mr. Calhoun to take a place in his cabinet as secretary of war, and, after some consultation with his friends, the invitation was accepted. Contrary to the general expectations of his friends, who had no conception of his powers of action, his management of the department was bold, thorough, and skilful. When he entered upon the office, the affairs of the department were in a state of confusion. He brought order out of chaos, and established every thing upon such a footing that the task of his successor was comparatively easy.

In 1824, Mr. Calhoun was nominated for the vice-presidency, and his popularity was shown at the general election, when he received 182 out of the 261 electoral votes. On the 4th of March, 1825, he took his seat as the presiding officer of the senate of the United States. Mr. Calhoun was peculiarly fitted for this position. He was prompt, energetic, and dignified. His opinion that the vice-president had no power to call to order gave great offence to the friends of President Adams, but he vindicated it in arguments of irresistible force. In 1828, Mr. Calhoun was re-elected vice-president, as the candidate on the same ticket with General Jackson.

The nullification controversy, as it has been termed, grew out of

the system of high protective duties long contended for by the manufacturing interest and the friends of the American system, and finally established by the act of 1828. By the act of 1816 a reduction of five per cent. on woollen and cotton goods was made in 1819; and the protectionists forthwith commenced their efforts to procure a modification of the law more favourable to their interests. Their exertions were continued from year to year, till they were ultimately crowned with success, through the efforts, in great part, of Mr. Adams and Mr. Clay. The act of 1816 went beyond the true revenue limit, but so long as the policy was merely to foster and build up domestic manufactures, and while the public debt remained unpaid, Mr. Calhoun, and others who entertained similar views, were content not to insist upon a reduction of the duties to the revenue standard. The debt must be provided for, and this, it was probable, would absorb the surplus of revenue for a long time to come. In 1824 the protectionists procured the passage of the act of that year increasing the profits of certain branches of manufactures already established, and offering great inducements for the establishment of others. Three years later—at the session of 1826–7—"the woollens' bill," was brought before Congress. After a long struggle, the tariff act of 1828 was passed. It imposed a tariff of duties averaging nearly fifty per cent. This measure gave great offence to the Southern States. But following the counsels of Mr. Calhoun they waited patiently to see if the administration of General Jackson would not change the condition of affairs. But nothing occurred to meet their anticipations. In the mean time, the friendly relations between Mr. Calhoun and General Jackson were interrupted, and Martin Van Buren became the leading candidate for the succession. The tariff act of 1832 then came to increase dissensions, and Mr. Calhoun announced that the protective system might be regarded as the settled policy of the country, and that all hope of relief from Congress was utterly gone. A large majority of the people of South Carolina then embraced the doctrine of nullification, as laid down by their great statesman, and affairs assumed a rebellious aspect.

On the 19th of November, 1832, a State convention was held at Columbia, South Carolina, and on the 24th, that body adopted the celebrated Ordinance of Nullification, declaring the acts of 1828 and 1832 absolutely void within the State of South Carolina, and asserting that any attempt to enforce those laws would be followed by the formation of an independent government. The State then placed itself in an attitude of military preparation. President Jackson im-

mediately issued a proclamation declaring the ordinance of the State convention subversive of the federal constitution, and his intention to enforce the laws at whatever hazard. Governor Hayne, of South Carolina, replied by calling out twelve thousand volunteers.

In the mean time, Mr. Calhoun had been chosen to succeed General Hayne as a senator from South Carolina. He immediately resigned the office of vice-president, and in December, 1832, he took his seat. Soon afterward the famous Force Bill was introduced into the senate, the object of it being to enable the federal government to enforce the collection of the revenue in South Carolina. The debate upon this question was one of the most interesting which ever occurred in the senate. Mr. Calhoun's speech is by many considered his most masterly effort; and certainly, it is almost unparalleled in the annals of congressional debate for cogent reasoning, clear statement, and vigour of language. The bill was passed by a large majority. The subject of nullification was debated still further, however, and those gigantic minds, Calhoun and Webster, met in lofty conflict, and it is a tacit admission to the triumph of the former, that Mr. Webster made no attempt to reply to his final speech.

In spite of that stormy aspect of affairs, no collision occurred between the national and State authorities; and early in 1833, the Compromise Act, introduced by Henry Clay, settled the tariff excitement for the time. Mr. Calhoun triumphed in obtaining the concession of two points for which he had long contended—the ad valorem principle, and the general reduction of duties to a revenue standard. Mr. Calhoun now refused to connect himself with either party, but he generally opposed the measures of President Jackson's administration. He was re-elected to the senate, and in spite of his independent position, he continued, by the extraordinary force of his genius, to wield a vast influence. The chief subject which received his attention during the remainder of his senatorial career was abolitionism, which now began to intrude itself in national politics. He opposed the abolition movement from the outset, and his speeches upon that subject were among the ablest he ever delivered. He was regarded as the champion of the South upon the question of slavery.

In March, 1843, Mr. Calhoun resigned his seat in the senate, in order to give some attention to his private affairs, which were considerably embarrassed. But he was not long suffered to remain in retirement. On the 28th of February, 1844, Mr. Upshur, President Tyler's secretary of state, was killed on board the steamer Princeton, by the explosion of a large gun. President Tyler then solicited Mr. Calhoun to accept the control of the department of state, and he

consented. He held that position until the close of Mr. Tyler's administration. The chief act accomplished by him during that period was the conclusion of a treaty for the annexation of Texas, a measure which he had always favoured.

After the accession of Mr. Polk, Mr. Calhoun was re-elected to the senate, in the place of Judge Huger, resigned. In November, 1845, he was elected a delegate to a South-western convention, held at Memphis, Tennessee, to promote the development of the resources of the Western and South-western States. This gave Mr. Calhoun an occasion to express his matured opinions upon the subject of internal improvements. He opposed the measures which brought about the Mexican war; and after the conclusion of peace, when California applied for admission into the Union, he opposed the admission. He issued an address to the people of the South, setting forth his opinions upon the agitating question of the period. When Congress met in December, 1849, Mr. Calhoun was too feeble to occupy his seat. Mr. Clay proposed a compromise, to settle the whole question of slavery. Mr. Calhoun was resolved to be heard upon the subject, but he was confined to his room. There he prepared the last great effort of his mind, which his colleague, Judge Butler, read in the senate on the 4th of March, 1850. On the 13th of March, Mr. Calhoun's voice was heard for the last time in debate. On the morning of the 31st of March, he died at Washington, at the age of sixty-eight years.

In person, Mr. Calhoun was tall and slender. His features were strong and angular in their outline, indicating extraordinary firmness of will. His eyes were large, dark blue, and glowing. The general expression of his countenance was that of concentrated thought. His manners were simple and dignified. His private life was pure and happily domestic. His attachments were warm, and he was generous and charitable. As an orator, he had more of the Demosthenean simplicity and lofty thought than any other American. His speeches are models in arrangement and force of expression. His manner in speaking was always majestic, but seldom animated, or rather, excited. But occasionally he burst forth in the most impassioned oratory. He has left a deep impression upon the politics of the United States, and his reputation may be said to be increasing every day.

SMITH THOMPSON.

This distinguished citizen was a native of Virginia. Educated to the bar, he early won a reputation for ability and eloquence. He became distinguished in the local politics of his native State, and also in the politics of the nation. After holding various offices under the government, he was appointed secretary of the navy under President Monroe. At that time he possessed much political influence. When the discussion of the Missouri Compromise agitated Congress and threatened the stability of the Union, Mr. Thompson wrote a powerful letter in advocacy of the measure, and showed that he was an ardent friend of the tranquillity and unity of his country's councils. Mr. Thompson held no public office after his retirement from the post of secretary of the navy.

J. Q. Adams

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

John Quincy Adams was the son of John Adams, the great orator of independence. He was born at Quincy, Massachusetts, on the 11th of July, 1767, at the period when his father was rapidly attaining the position of a leader in opposing the oppressive designs of Great Britain. He received the rudiments of an English education from his mother, a woman of extraordinary intelligence and attainments. As a child, John Quincy was remarkable for quickness of apprehension and precocity of intelligence. When he was ten years of age, his father was appointed minister to France, and, in February, 1778, the father and son sailed for that country. They remained abroad about a year and a half, during which period, John Quincy attended a school in Paris. In 1779, young Adams accompanied his father in his mission to the court of St. James. But they did not reach England. They remained at Paris until August, 1780, during which period John Quincy Adams attended an academy. The mission proved unsuccessful, and the father and son proceeded to Holland. While in that country, John Quincy was placed at school, first at Amsterdam, and afterward in the University of Leyden.

In July, 1781, Francis Dana was appointed minister to Russia, and John Quincy Adams, then only fourteen years of age, was appointed secretary of the mission. He remained in that position fourteen months, performing its duties with entire satisfaction to the minister. Returning to Holland, young Adams resumed his studies at the Hague. But he was in Paris when the definitive treaty of peace was concluded between Great Britain and the United States, (November, 1783.) After the ratification of this treaty, John Quincy accompanied his father to London. In 1785, young Adams returned

to his native land, and, at the age of eighteen years, entered Cambridge University. There he graduated in 1786, with distinguished honours.

Having completed his collegiate education, John Quincy Adams entered the office of Theophilus Parsons, at Newburyport, Massachusetts. He studied law for the usual term, and then commenced the practice of his profession in Boston.

In 1791 he published a series of papers in the Boston Sentinel, under the signature of Publicola, containing remarks upon the first part of Paine's Rights of Man, which excited much public notice in this country, as well as in Europe; and, in 1793–4, he published various political essays, which did honour to his talents, and drew upon him the notice of President Washington, who afterward selected him for the important post of minister resident to the Netherlands.

From this period, until 1801, he was successively employed as a public minister in Holland, England, and Prussia. And, during his residence in the latter country, he concluded a treaty of commerce with that power, to the entire satisfaction of our cabinet.

In 1801, Mr. Adams returned to the United States, and the next year was elected a member of the senate of Massachusetts, and, in 1803, of the senate of the United States. He passed, altogether, six years in these two bodies, engaged indefatigably and prominently in the important questions which occupied their attention. It was during this perplexing period of public affairs that he nobly sacrificed the interest of party to that of his country, by which he has more firmly interwoven his name in the annals of his country. In consequence of his appointment of first Boylston professor of rhetoric and oratory in the University of Cambridge, Mr. Adams resigned his seat in the senate of the United States in the year 1808. He had no sooner completed a most brilliant course of lectures on rhetoric and oratory, in that renowned institution, when he received, unsolicited, from President Madison, the appointment of minister plenipotentiary to the court of Russia.

In 1813, Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Bayard arrived at St. Petersburg, empowered to negotiate, jointly with Mr. Adams, a treaty of peace with Great Britain, under the mediation of Russia. The British government declined the mediation, but proposed a direct negotiation, which finally took place at Ghent, in 1814, with Mr. Adams as its head, on the American side.

At the termination of this successful mission, Mr. Adams repaired to London, and there concluded, jointly with Mr. Clay and Mr. Gallatin, a commercial convention. The American government having

appointed him, immediately after the ratification of the peace of Ghent, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to the British court, he remained in London in that capacity, until the summer of 1817, when he was called home by President Monroe, to fill the office of secretary of state.

To give even an outline of his labours, in this high and responsible office, would swell this article to an immoderate size: we shall therefore content ourselves by briefly enumerating a few leading facts only. Under his instructions, a commercial convention was negotiated with Great Britain in 1818. In 1819, he signed the Florida treaty with Don Luis de Onis, which gave to us not only the Floridas, and an indemnity of five millions of dollars for our merchants, but the first acknowledged boundary from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific. In 1822 he signed with the ambassador of France a convention of commerce and navigation, which was unanimously ratified by the senate. He defended General Jackson when that great warrior was censured for invading Florida, and had sufficient influence with the administration to induce Mr. Monroe and his cabinet to approve the course pursued.

Mr. Adams was regarded as a fit man to succeed Mr. Monroe in the presidency, and he was nominated in various parts of the Union. But there were several great men in the field, candidates for the same high position. These were General Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, and Henry Clay. The result of the election was that in the electoral college, General Jackson received ninety-nine votes, Mr. Adams, eighty-four; Mr. Crawford, forty-one; and Mr. Clay, thirty-seven. The election then devolved upon the House of Representatives. In that body, the result was as follows:—For John Quincy Adams, thirteen votes; for Andrew Jackson, seven votes; for William H. Crawford, four votes. John Quincy Adams was therefore declared elected president of the United States. This election gave great offence to the friends of General Jackson. They charged Mr. Adams and Mr. Clay with "bargain and corruption," and threatened to make war upon the new administration "to the bitter end." Their excitement was natural under the circumstances, but their charges have been shown to be utterly false.

On the 4th of March, 1825, John Quincy Adams was inaugurated president of the United States. He composed his cabinet of some of the most brilliant men in the republic. Henry Clay was appointed secretary of state; Richard Rush, secretary of the treasury; James Barbour and Peter B. Porter, secretaries of war; Samuel L. Southard, secretary of the navy; William Wirt, attorney-general; and

John McLean, postmaster-general. The three last mentioned were in office under President Munroe.

Immediately after the inauguration of Mr. Adams, it became evident that a powerful opposition had been organized, and that whatever measures were proposed would be strenuously resisted. One of the most prominent topics of public interest during 1825, was the controversy between the national government and Governor Troup of Georgia. The national government had engaged to extinguish the Indian titles to land within the limits of Georgia wherever this could be accomplished at a reasonable expense. A part of this agreement had been fulfilled, and Georgia now demanded that the entire Indian population should be removed west of the Mississippi.

But the Creek nation, having begun to enjoy the arts and comforts of civilization, were unwilling to leave their lands for the wilderness of the West, and they passed a law forbidding the sale of any of their lands on pain of death. A few of the chiefs were disposed to violate this law, and these were induced by the United States commissioners to sell all the lands of the Creeks in Alabama and Georgia. The treaty was ratified by the national government on the last day of Mr. Monroe's administration. This produced great excitement among the Creeks, and a secret council of the nation being called, they resolved not to accept the treaty. McIntosh and another chief who had signed that instrument were shot on the 30th of April. Governor Troup, of Georgia, now contended that the lands were vested in the State, and that the national government was bound to compel the removal of the Indians. But the president, finding that the treaty had been fraudulently obtained, decided not to suffer any interference with the Indians until the meeting of Congress. Governor Troup threatened to enforce the treaty himself, but the firm, decided tone of President Adams induced him to leave the affair to the disposal of the constituted authorities. The president then opened new negotiations, which resulted in all the Georgia lands of the Creeks being ceded to the United States, but the Alabama land remained in possession of the Indians. This new treaty was ratified by the senate. In August, 1825, Governors Cass and Clarke concluded treaties with the north-western tribes, at Prairie de Chien.

The plan of removing the Indians west of the Mississippi, and adopting measures for their civilization was now prosecuted with uninterrupted success.

In September, 1825, General Lafayette, "the nation's guest," bade farewell to the people of the United States. President Adams delivered to him a parting address full of noble emotion. In the

course of the congressional session which began in December, Messrs. Benton and McDuffie made an effort to amend the constitution so as to provide for a direct election of president by the people. But the movement failed. The most prominent topic of discussion was what is known as "the Panama mission," or the sending of delegates to participate in the general congress of the South American republics, held at Panama. The opposition denounced the mission as a violation of the neutral policy of the government. But a majority of Congress approved it, and confirmed the nominations of the delegates, Richard C. Anderson and John Sergeant. The delay caused by the discussion, however, prevented the United States from being represented in the congress at Panama. Several important measures for internal improvement were passed by this Congress.

In the mean time the opposition was being concentrated upon General Andrew Jackson, as their candidate to succeed Mr. Adams in the presidency. They soon obtained a majority in the house of representatives, and elected their candidate for speaker. In 1828 a protective tariff was adopted after a long and exciting discussion. The measure was very unpopular in the Southern States. Soon afterward, the senate adopted an important amendment to the rules, giving the presiding officer power to call to order.

In the fall of 1828, the general election occurred, and the contest was intensely exciting. The result was the defeat of Mr. Adams and Mr. Rush, and the election of General Jackson and Mr. Calhoun by a large majority. The twentieth Congress did not seem disposed to do more than provide for the necessities of the government. The appropriations for internal improvements were rather large.

The administration of John Quincy Adams terminated on the 3d of March, 1829. It had, from the outset, encountered a powerful opposition, and its difficulties were, therefore, almost unprecedented. But that the government was during that period administered with vigour, decision, and consummate ability none have pretended to deny since the partisan bitterness of the time has subsided. The foreign and domestic policy of the government had been clear, energetic, and unequivocal.

After the inauguration of his successor in 1829, Mr. Adams retired to private life, at Quincy, near Boston. But the people of his district were not willing to let him remain a mere spectator of public affairs. In 1830 he was elected to represent them in Congress. He accepted the post, and, in December, 1831, took his seat, which he continued to occupy till the hand of death removed him from earthly

care. He was always an active member, and particularly distinguished himself as an advocate of the right of petition.

On the 21st of February, 1848, this illustrious statesman was stricken with paralysis while sitting in his chair in the house of representatives. He sank into unconsciousness—and, in the midst of general excitement, he was removed to the speaker's room, where he lingered until the evening of the 23d, when his spirit left its tenement of clay. The last words he was heard to utter were, "This is the last of earth! I am content!"

The whole nation was thrown into mourning by the death of John Quincy Adams. A faithful sentinel of the people had died at his post. Congress adjourned. The president issued a proclamation, announcing the event. In all sections of the Union the voice of eulogy was raised to do justice to the character and deeds of the noble dead. The remains were taken to Massachusetts, and interred at Quincy, among the graves of an illustrious ancestry.

In personal appearance, John Quincy Adams was of middle stature and portly person, his eyes dark and piercing, his countenance expressing a striking union of firmness and intelligence. His manners were rather haughty and reserved, like those of his illustrious father. His habits were of the most active character.

The greatest feature in the character of Mr. Adams was his independence of thought and action. In this respect he resembled his father, who estimated an honest independent spirit as the best virtue of man. His mind was quick and capacious. Study and observation had rendered its stores of knowledge immense, and they were so classified that they were always at command. His eloquence was fervent and copious, sometimes rather diffuse. He seldom spoke without eliciting general attention, and never without being forcible. He will be remembered as one of the most valuable public servants America has yet produced.

HENRY CLAY.

The secretary of state under the administration of John Quincy Adams, was the brilliant orator of Kentucky, the eloquent advocate of the war of 1812, and the skilful negotiator of Ghent, Henry Clay. This distinguished statesman was born on the 12th of April, 1777, in Hanover county, Virginia. He was the son of a respectable Baptist clergyman. His father died when young Henry had attained his fifth year, and the care of superintending his education devolved on his widowed mother. She appears to have been a lady of sterling worth, singular intelligence, and masculine vigour of intellect. Though left in very reduced circumstances, she was enabled, by prudence, economy, and energy, to raise her large family in comfort, and to place her sons in the way to assume stations of respectability and honour in society.

The boyhood of Henry Clay was furnished with few of those facilities for obtaining a literary education, which are now accessible to almost all. His mind was left to develop its powers and attain its growth through the force of its own innate energies, with but little aid from books or competent instructers. Those rich treasures of intellectual wealth, which are to be found in well-selected libraries and properly organized schools, were to him a sealed fountain. The extent of his boyish attainments in literature, consisted of the common elements taught in a country school of the most humble pretensions. Even these slender advantages were but sparingly enjoyed, and the future orator and statesman was compelled, by the straitened circumstances of his family, to devote a considerable portion of his time to manual labour in the field.

At the age of fourteen, he was placed in a small drug-store in the city of Richmond, Virginia. He continued in this situation but a few months, and, in 1792, entered the office of the clerk of the high court of chancery. While in this office he attracted the attention of Chancellor Wythe, who, being very favourably impressed by his amiable deportment, uniform habits of industry, and striking displays of intelligence, honoured him with his friendship, and employed him as an *amanuensis*. It was probably through the advice of Chancellor Wythe that he first conceived the design of studying law, and he has himself borne testimony to the fact that his intercourse with that great and good man exercised a decided and very

salutary influence in the development of his mental powers, and the formation of his character.

In the year 1796, he went to reside with Robert Brooke, Esq., attorney-general of Virginia. While in the family of this gentleman, his opportunities for acquiring a knowledge of the profession to which he had determined to devote his life, were greatly improved, and he appears to have cultivated them with exemplary assiduity. The year 1797 seems to have been devoted by Mr. Clay exclusively to the study of his profession. It is worthy of remark, that this was the first year in which his necessities permitted him to pursue an uninterrupted system of study, and so eagerly did he avail himself of the privilege, and such was the ardour and vivacity of his mind, that near the close of the year he obtained from the Virginia court of appeals a license to practise. Of course the acquisitions made in the science of law, in the course of these irregular and broken efforts to master that intricate and complex system, were somewhat desultory and crude, and it is not the least striking evidence of the wonderful resources of Mr. Clay's genius, that he was enabled, notwithstanding these disadvantages, to assume, so early in life, a high rank in his profession, at a bar distinguished for the number, ability, and profound erudition of its members.

Upon obtaining his license, Mr. Clay, then in the twenty-first year of his age, came to Lexington, Kentucky. He did not, however, immediately enter upon the duties of his profession, but spent several months in reviewing his legal studies, and forming an acquaintance with the people. His appearance at this period is represented to have been that of a man in feeble health. Delicate in his person, slow and languid in all his movements, his whole air and bearing was pervaded by a lassitude, which gave no promise of that untiring energy which has since so singularly marked his extraordinary history.

When Mr. Clay entered upon the duties of his profession, the Lexington bar was noted for talent, numbering among its members some of the first lawyers that have ever adorned the legal profession in America. He commenced the practice under circumstances somewhat discouraging, and, as appears from his own statement, with very moderate expectations. His earliest efforts, however, were attended with complete success; his reputation spread rapidly, and, to use his own language, he "he immediately rushed into a lucrative practice." This unusual spectacle, so rare in the legal profession, is to be ascribed mainly to Mr. Clay's skill as an advocate. Gifted by nature with oratorial genius of a high order, his very youth in-

creased the spell of that potent fascination which his splendid elocution and passionate eloquence threw over the public mind, and led the imagination a willing captive to its power. It was in the conduct of criminal cases especially, that he achieved his greatest triumphs. The latitude customary and allowable to an advocate in the defence of his client, the surpassing interest of the questions at issue, presented an occasion and a field which never failed to elicit a blaze of genius, before which the public stood dazzled and astonished.

A large portion of the litigation of that day, in Kentucky, grew out of the unsettled tenure by which most of the lands in the country were held. The contests arising out of those conflicting claims had built up a system of land law remarkable for its intricacy and complexity, and having no parallel in the whole range of the law of real property. Adapted to the exigencies of the country, and having its origin in the necessities of the times, it was still remarkable for its logical consistency and sound principle. Kentucky, at that day, could boast some of the most profound, acute, and subtle lawyers in the world. And it is no slight tribute to the talents and acquirements of Mr. Clay, to say that, among those strong and deeply learned men, he stood among the foremost.

When Mr. Clay first arrived in Kentucky, the contest between the old Federal and Democratic parties was violent and bitter. Any one acquainted with the ardent, frank, open, and somewhat boisterous and extravagant character of the Kentuckians at that period, will not require to be told that neutrality in politics, even had Mr. Clay been disposed to pursue that equivocal line of conduct, was for him utterly out of the question, and would not have been tolerated for a moment. He accordingly united himself with the Jeffersonian or Democratic party, with whose principles his own sentiments entirely harmonized. He was prominent at a very early day among those who denounced the most obnoxious measures of the Adams administration, and was especially conspicuous for the energy, eloquence, and efficiency with which he opposed the alien and sedition laws. In 1803 he was elected to represent the county of Fayette in the most numerous branch of the State legislature. He was re-elected to that body at every session until 1806. The impression made upon his associates must have been of the most favourable character, since, in the latter year, he was elected to the senate of the United States, to serve out the unexpired term of General Adair. He was elected for one session only.

During this session, Mr. Clay, as a member of the senate, had

occasion to investigate the extent of the power of Congress to promote internal improvements, and the result of his examination was a full conviction that the subject was clearly within the competency of the general government. These views he never changed; and profoundly impressed with the policy of promoting such works, he at the same session gave his cordial support to several measures of that character.

At the close of the session, Mr. Clay returned to Kentucky and resumed the practice of his profession. At the ensuing election in August, he was returned as the representative from Fayette to the legislature. When the legislature assembled, he was elected speaker of the house. In this station he was distinguished for the zeal, energy, and decision with which he discharged its duties. He continued a member of the legislature until 1809, when he tendered his resignation, and was elected to the senate of the United States for two years, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Mr. Thruston. During his continuance in the legislature he had produced the deepest impression of his abilities, and won the warm regard and full confidence of his associates. How completely he had established himself in the favourable opinion of that body, may be inferred from the fact that he was elected to the office before named by a vote of two-thirds. He retired, accompanied by expressions of ardent admiration for his talents, high esteem for his services, and sincere regret for his loss.

The principal matters which came before the senate during Mr. Clay's second term of service, related to the policy of encouraging domestic manufactures; the law to reduce into possession and establish the authority of the United States over the territory between the Mississippi and Perdido rivers, comprehending the present States of Mississippi, Alabama and Florida; and the question of a recharter of the Bank of the United States. In the discussions which arose on each of these questions, Mr. Clay bore a conspicuous part, fully sustaining the high reputation for ability with which he entered the senate.

His speech in favour of giving the preference to articles of American growth and manufacture, in providing supplies for the army and navy, was remarkable, as being the first occasion in which he developed to the national legislature those peculiar views in reference to the policy of building up a system of home industry, which he had at an earlier day sought to impress on the legislation of Kentucky.

At the session of 1810–11, the question of a recharter of the Bank of the United States was brought before the senate, and became

the subject of a debate, noted in our congressional history for its intemperate violence and splendid displays of eloquence. On this occasion Mr. Clay was found opposed to the recharter of the bank, and maintained his views in a speech of great ingenuity and power. He afterward, in 1816, saw reason to change his opinions, and since then has been firm in the support he has given to that institution. The explanation of this inconsisteney is to be sought in the peculiar views held by American statesmen at that day, in reference to the construction of the constitution. The grand subject of difference in *principle* between the old Federal and Democratic parties related to the interpretation of that instrument. The Federalists were the advocates of a free construction, granting to the general government the utmost latitude in the exercise of its powers. It is probable that in the heat of party controversy they carried their principles to an extreme, perhaps a dangerous length. The Democrats, on the other hand, were strict constructionists; opposed to deriving powers to Congress by implication, and confining the government to the exercise of such as were expressly and in terms granted in the constitution.

When, at the expiration of the term of service for which he had been elected, Mr. Clay retired from the senate, he left behind him a character for general ability and sound statesmanship, which few men of the same age have ever attained.

In 1811, the same year in which he retired from the senate, he was elected by the people of the Fayette district to represent them in the house of representatives of the United States. In 1813, he was re-elected, and continued a member of the house until he was sent to Europe as one of the commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain. During the whole of this period, he filled the speaker's chair in the house, having received the high and unusual compliment of being chosen to that responsible station the first day on which he appeared in his seat in Congress.

Mr. Clay, consequently, presided over the twelfth and thirteenth Congresses, and participated largely in those measures adapted to vindicate the honour and assert the rights of the country, against the usurpations and aggressions of Great Britain. He gave a warm and hearty co-operation in all those efforts that were made to put the country in a state of defence, and contributed as much, if not more, by his sleepless energy and unrivalled eloquence, to infuse a proper spirit into the deliberations of Congress, than any other man. His speeches on the subject of our difficulties with Great Britain, exhibit some of the most brilliant specimens of parliamentary eloquence

extant, and their effect at the time, in arousing the country to a sense of its wrongs, and a determination to redress them, is said to have been unequalled.

In 1814, having been appointed in conjunction with Messrs. John Q. Adams, James A. Bayard, Albert Gallatin, and Jonathan Russell, a commissioner to meet commissioners appointed on the part of Great Britain, he proceeded to Europe. On the 6th of August, the plenipotentiaries of both nations met in the ancient city of Ghent, prepared to proceed to business. The plan of this sketch does not require, nor would it admit of a detailed account of the negotiations, extending through several months, which finally resulted in a treaty of peace between the two nations. These are to be found related at large in the public histories of the time, and to them we refer the reader for a full knowledge of those transactions. Let it suffice to say that on this, as on all other occasions, Mr. Clay mingled controllingly in the deliberations of his distinguished colleagues, and exercised a very commanding influence over the course of the negotiation. There is, indeed, reason to believe that, but for his firmness and tact, the right to the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi river would have been surrendered for a very inconsiderable equivalent. His colleagues in the negotiation have always borne the most honourable testimony to the ability and comprehensive knowledge displayed by Mr. Clay in those memorable transactions, and he returned to the United States with a reputation materially enhanced. When the commissioners had closed their diplomatic labours, Mr. Clay visited Paris, and subsequently London, forming an acquaintance with many of the most distinguished characters on the continent and in England. In 1815 he left the shores of Europe, and returned to America, which continent he has not since left, except on one occasion, when he made a brief visit to the Island of Cuba for the benefit of his health.

He found upon his arrival in Kentucky, that during his absence, he had been nominated by his friends and elected to Congress; but, as there arose doubts respecting the legality of his election, he resigned, and the canvass was opened anew. This resulted as the previous vote, in his being returned by an overwhelming majority. He was re-elected in succession to every Congress that assembled, until the session of 1820–21, when he retired to repair the inroads made in his private fortune by his long devotion to public affairs. During this period, he was thrice elected speaker of the house, and presided over the deliberations of that body during the whole period which intervened between 1815 and 1821.

On his re-entrance into Congress, Mr. Clay was called to defend the treaty, in the formation of which he had participated so largely, against the animadversions of his old enemies, the Federalists. That treaty was made the subject of unbridled criticism, by those who had opposed the war, and with the magical astuteness of hatred, they discovered objectional features in every clause. In the course of the discussions which thus arose, he had frequent occasion to review the origin, progress, and termination of the war, which task he performed with masterly ability, exposing the inconsistency and malignity of his adversaries to deserved odium. He met them at every point, and never failed to make their rancorous virulence recoil on their own heads with tremendous effect.

In 1820, the subject of a protective tariff again came before Congress, and Mr. Clay gave an ardent support to a bill introduced for the purpose of increasing the measure of protection. Nor did he relax his efforts until he finally had the satisfaction of seeing the system for which he had been so long struggling fully established.

In March, 1818, a resolution was introduced declaring that Congress had power to construct post-roads and canals, and also to appropriate money for that object. This resolution encountered a most formidable array of opposition. Mr. Madison, previous to his retirement from the presidential chair, had vetoed a bill for the promotion of internal improvements, and in succeeding him, Mr. Monroe manifested a disposition to "follow in his footsteps." But nothing daunted by the overwhelming opposition against which he had to contend, and the discouraging fact that the administrations of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe were all against the policy, Mr. Clay continued to urge upon Congress the adoption of his system, from a profound conviction that it was intimately connected with the progress of the country in all those elements which promote the general good. The resolution was adopted by a vote of ninety to seventy-five.

The recognition of the South American republics by the government of the United States, a measure which was almost entirely attributable to the indefatigable exertions, personal influence, and powerful eloquence of Mr. Clay, while it shed lustre on the Monroe administration, surrounded the brow of the great statesman with a halo of true glory which grows brighter with the lapse of time. At the session of 1816–17 the subject of the Seminole war was brought before Congress, and Mr. Clay, in the course of his speech on that occasion, spoke with some severity of the conduct of General Jackson. This was the origin of that inveterate hostility on the part of the old

general toward the great Kentuckian, the consequences of which were deeply felt in after years.

The only remaining measure of importance with which Mr. Clay's name is connected in the history of those times, was the great and exciting question which arose on the application of Missouri for admission into the Union. Probably at no period of our history has the horoscope of our country's destiny looked so dark and threatening. In the settlement of this question Henry Clay bore a leading part. At the close of the session of Congress in 1821, Mr. Clay retired, and resumed the practice of his profession. He did not again enter Congress until 1823.

Upon resuming his place in Congress at the commencement of the session of 1823–4, Mr. Clay was elected speaker, over Mr. Barbour of Virginia, by a considerable majority. He continued speaker of the house until he entered the cabinet of Mr. Adams, in 1825. During this time, the subject of the tariff again came before Congress, and was advocated by Mr. Clay in one of the most masterly efforts of his life. He also advocated a resolution, introduced by Mr. Webster, to defray the expenses of a messenger to Greece, at that time engaged against the power of the Turks in an arduous and bloody struggle for independence.

Toward the close of the year 1824, the question of the presidency was generally agitated. As candidates for this office, Messrs. John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and William H. Crawford had been brought forward by their respective friends. Mr. Clay had been nominated by the Kentucky legislature as early as 1822. The people failing to make a choice, the election was thrown into the house. Mr. Clay, being the lowest on the list, was excluded from the house by the constitutional provision which makes it the duty of Congress to select one of the three highest candidates. His position in the house now became exceedingly delicate as well as important. He had it in his power, by placing himself at the head of the party who went with him in the house, to control its choice of the three candidates before it. When the election came on, he cast his vote for Mr. Adams, who thus became president of the United States. This vote of Mr. Clay has been made the subject of much calumny and misrepresentation. At the time, it was charged that he had been bought up by the offer of a seat in the cabinet. Efforts were made to produce evidence to this effect, but it was attended by signal failure.

During Mr. Adams's administration, Mr. Clay occupied a seat in his cabinet, as secretary of state. The various official documents

prepared by him while in this office are among the best in our archives. While secretary of state, he negotiated many treaties with the various foreign powers with whom this country maintained relations, in which he approved himself as superior as a diplomatist, as he had been before unrivalled as a legislator and orator. He was a universal favourite with the foreign ministers resident at Washington, and contributed much, by his amenity and suavity of deportment, to place the negotiations on a footing most favourable to his own country. At the expiration of Mr. Adams's term of office, Mr. Clay retired to Ashland, his seat near Lexington. He continued engaged in the avocations of his profession until 1831, when he was elected to the senate of the United States for the term of six years. About the same time, in a national convention at Baltimore, he was nominated to the presidency in opposition to General Jackson.

The subjects brought before the senate during this term of Mr. Clay's service, were of the most important and exciting character. The subjects of the tariff, the United States' bank, the public lands, &c., embracing a system of legislative policy of the most comprehensive character and the highest importance, constantly engaged the attention of the country and of Congress. During the period signalized by the agitation of these great questions, probably the most exciting in the political annals of America, no man filled a larger space in the public eye than Mr. Clay. Although defeated when the election for president came on, that circumstance appeared but to increase the devotion of his friends.

It was at this period that the lines were drawn between those two great and powerful parties, which, assuming to themselves the respective *noms de guerre* of Whig and Democratic, lighted up those flames of civil contention which have kept this country in a state of confusion ever since.

It was in opposition to Andrew Jackson, that Mr. Clay was called to act upon his entrance into the senate in 1831. It was an exigency which demanded all his energy and all his talents. We shall not pretend to say that the conduct of Mr.Clay in these bitter and exciting controversies was free from the influence of passion. On the contrary, passion constituted one of the strong forces of his character, and was stamped on every action of his life. Perhaps, with the exception of Andrew Jackson, there was not a man in America so remarkable for the fierce and unyielding power of his will, and the deep and fervent impetuosity of his passions, as Henry Clay. It is the characteristic of all decided men.

General Jackson's veto of the bill to recharter the Bank of the

United States, produced an effect on the financial condition of the country, which resulted in the most disastrous consequences to trade, commerce, and business in all its branches. As in 1816, Mr. Clay advocated the recharter of the bank, and denounced the veto in unmeasured terms. He predicted the consequences which would result from the measure.

In relation to the tariff, South Carolina had assumed a hostile attitude. She declared her intention to resist the execution of the revenue laws within her borders, and prepared to maintain herself in this resistance by force of arms. Jackson, on the contrary, determined that the revenue laws should be enforced at all hazards. The national horizon began to look bloody, and peaceable men to tremble. At this junction, Mr. Clay again stepped forward as mediator. Although wedded to the protective system, by his conviction of its utility, and its close connection with the progress of the country in arts, wealth, and civilization, he was not the man to jeopardize the existence of the Union, or sacrifice the peace of his country to the preservation of any favourite system of policy. He accordingly introduced, and after great efforts succeeded in passing, a compromise measure, which, without yielding the principle of protection, but deferring to the exigencies of the times, pacified the troubled elements of contention, and restored harmony to a distracted people.

In 1836, Mr. Van Buren became president of the United States, and Mr. Clay was re-elected to the senate. Mr. Van Buren's administration was taken up principally with the disputes relative to the currency.

In 1840, General Harrison, the Whig candidate for the presidency, was elected by one of those tremendous and irresistible popular movements, which are seen in no other country besides this. During the canvass, Mr. Clay visited Hanover county, the place of his nativity, and while there addressed an assembly of the people. It was one of the ablest speeches of his life, and contained a masterly exposition of the principles and subjects of controversy between the two parties.

After the election of General Harrison, when Congress assembled, it set itself to work to effect a change in the fiscal affairs and tariff policy of the government. Unfortunately, however, the work had scarcely commenced before death removed the lamented Harrison from the scene of his usefulness, and Mr. Tyler, the vice-president, succeeded to his place. Then followed, in rapid succession, veto after veto, until all hope of accomplishing the objects for which the Whigs came into power, were extinct. During this period, Mr. Clay

laboured night and day to bring the president into an accommodating temper, but without success.

On the 31st of March, 1842, Mr. Clay executed his long and fondly-cherished design of retiring to spend the evening of his days amid the tranquil shades of Ashland. He resigned his seat in the senate, and presented to that body the credentials of his friend and successor, Mr. Crittenden. The scene which ensued was indescribably thrilling. When Mr. Clay resigned his seat, the senate unanimously adjourned for the day.

In May, 1844, the national Whig convention nominated Mr. Clay as a candidate for president of the United States. The nominee of the Democratic party was James K. Polk, of Tennessee. The canvass was probably one of the most exciting ever witnessed in this country. In addition to the old issues, a new one was formed on the proposition to annex the republic of Texas to the American Union. This question, intimately involving the exciting subject of slavery, gave to the presidential canvass a new character and an unforeseen direction. It would be out of place here, although not without interest and instruction, to trace and analyze the causes which operated to defeat the Whigs. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Polk was made president. Texas became one of the United States. War ensued with Mexico; and the armies of the United States swept the fertile provinces of that sister republic from the mouth of the Rio Grande to the western base of the Rocky Mountains. Governments were abrogated, and new ones established in their place.*

After his resignation, Mr. Clay still communicated with the public from his residence in Kentucky, by letters and speeches on the various topics of the day. He remained in retirement in Kentucky until after the election of General Taylor, when, in 1849, he was re-elected to the Senate of the United States. Here, during the famous session 1849–50, he devoted all his remaining energies to secure the passage of the series of measures known as the Compromise Acts. His efforts during this session weakened his strength and hastened his death. As his disease was gaining the mastery over him, he sought for relief, in the winter of 1850–51, in a visit to Havana and to New Orleans, but with no permanent advantage. At the commencement of the next session of Congress, he came to Washington, but was unable to participate in the active duties of the Senate. Sensible of his failing health, he resigned his seat in the

* Collins's Kentucky.

Senate, the resignation to take effect upon the 6th of September, 1852. But he was not to see that day. He died on the 29th of June, 1852.

Mr. Clay's eminence as a lawyer was only eclipsed by the splendour of his political fame. In juridical learning he did not excel, nor could it have been expected, considering the standard of professional attainments in his day, but he was well grounded in the principles of the law, and these carried him safely through his manifold labours. As a jury lawyer and a criminal advocate, he has rarely, if ever, been excelled. His most eloquent speeches in public life are said to have been surpassed by some of his addresses to Kentucky juries before he had passed his twenty-fifth year. To many of the moral movements of the day, he gave the weight and influence of his eloquence and his sympathy. Especially was he interested in the success of the Colonization Society, and was for a long time one of its most efficient officers, and also its president.

Mr. Clay was a man of the most untiring energy, and a tenacity of purpose which nothing could shake. His passions were intense and powerful, yet at periods of the fiercest excitement, he could reason with as much logical coolness as if he was sitting in a study. Such a man was born to be a ruling spirit amid the storms of political life.

The personal appearance of Mr. Clay was manly and striking. He was tall and slenderly, but vigorously built. His countenance was full of animation, and his gray eyes beamed with light. He had all the graceful actions of the orator of nature. In general intercourse with society, no man was better calculated to win respect and affection.

Mr. Clay had twelve children, of whom three sons survived him.

SAMUEL L. SOUTHARD.

Samuel L. Southard was born at Baskingridge, New Jersey, on the 9th of June, 1787. In 1804 he graduated at Princeton, with the highest honours. From this period till 1809, when he was admitted to the bar of Virginia, he employed himself in the duties of teaching, first as an assistant in a classical academy, and afterward as a private tutor. Returning to his native State, he was appointed attorney-general of New Jersey. In January, 1815, he acquired a

high reputation as an able lawyer and orator, by his speech in the great "Steamboat Case," discussed before the New Jersey legislature, and which originated in the claim of Fulton to the invention of steamboats. In the following October he was elected to the legislature. The same month he was appointed an associate judge of the supreme court of the State. At this time he was but twenty-eight years of age.

Returning to the bar, Mr. Southard, in 1820, was chosen United States senator from New Jersey, for the following six years. His abilities soon brought him into prominent notice, and in 1823 he was called to the secretaryship of the navy by President Monroe. In that station he remained until the incoming of President Jackson. In 1832, after three years of service as attorney-general, he was elected governor of New Jersey. Again elected United States senator, he served out his term, and was immediately chosen for another.

In March, 1841, he was appointed president *pro tem.* of the senate. While he occupied this position, the death of President Harrison occurred. By this event, which elevated Mr. Tyler to the executive chair, Mr. Southard became, by virtue of his office, the vice-president of the Union. Before the close of his term, he took sick, and died, at Fredericksburg, Virginia, on the 26th of June, 1842, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Mr. Southard was a man of untiring energy in the performance of his public duties. Though an active politician, he still found abundant time to engage in enterprises connected with the advancement of knowledge and Christian benevolence. His literary abilities were of a high order.

JOHN RODGERS.

Commodore John Rodgers was born in Harford county, Maryland, on the 11th of July, 1771. He was of Scotch descent, his father having come to America some time before the war of independence. In that war, the elder Rodgers performed good service, as a militia colonel, in the ranks of the patriot forces.

At the early age of sixteen, the subject of this narrative, having followed the sea from his thirteenth year, received command of a vessel sailing as a trader from Baltimore to the North of Europe. Remaining seven years in the merchant service, Captain Rodgers,

in 1797, sailed on board the frigate Constellation, Commodore Truxton commanding, as a lieutenant in the navy of the United States.

In February of the following year, while what is called the "quasi war" was raging between the United States and France, the Constellation encountered and captured the L'Insurgente, a French frigate. Lieutenant Rodgers, with twelve men, was sent on board the prize to clear the decks of the wounded and dead, and confine the prisoners, one hundred and seventy-three in number. Before this duty could be performed, a terrible storm arose, and swept the prize out of sight of the Constellation. Exercising that firmness and energy which formed striking traits in his character, Lieutenant Rodgers succeeded in restraining his prisoners and carrying the ship into the harbour of St. Kitts.

On returning home, Lieutenant Rodgers procured a furlough, and sailed to the West Indies, in a small brig belonging to himself. Being at St. Domingo when the terrible slave revolt took place on that island, he exerted himself warmly to save the property and lives of the unfortunate whites. On one occasion, while engaged in this work of benevolence, he was seized by the enraged negroes, and placed in close confinement, but presently found means to make his escape.

Lieutenant Rodgers was made a post-captain in March, 1799. Late in 1802 he sailed as commander of the sloop-of-war John Adams, in the expedition against Tripoli. On this occasion he distinguished himself by engaging and destroying the largest of the Tripolitan fleet. Returning home the following year, he again sailed to the Mediterranean, in 1804. In 1805 he succeeded Commodore Barron in the command of the squadron. Having assisted at the signing of the treaty, which ended the Tripolitan war, he presently returned to the United States, where he was appointed to take charge of the gunboats in New York harbour. At this station he remained till 1809.

From 1809 till the declaration of war against England, in 1812, Commodore Rodgers, first in command of the Constitution, and then of the President, performed good service in protecting our commerce from the depredations of British cruisers. It was during this period that he engaged and captured the English sloop-of-war Little Belt. Having his suspicions excited by the appearance of this vessel, Rodgers gave chase. As he approached within gunshot, his own ship was fired into, when an action ensued, in which the Little Belt was compelled to strike her flag. The British commander having

declared that Rodgers was the aggressor in this affair, a court of inquiry was appointed, which confirmed the truth of the commodore's account.

Soon after the breaking out of the war, Commodore Rodgers sailed from New York in command of a large squadron, boldly crossing and recrossing the Atlantic, in the face of an enemy famous for their power on the seas. From this period until 1814 he made several cruises, remarkable for their daring, but not leading to any important conflicts with the enemy. In August, 1814, he distinguished himself in conducting the naval operations against the British, after their retreat from the national capital. In September, he assisted at the defence of Baltimore, and contributed materially to the failure of the enemy's attempt against that city.

At the conclusion of the war in 1815, President Madison tendered Commodore Rodgers the office of secretary of the navy, but he then declined it. During the administration of Mr. Monroe, however, he held that post for a short time.

For a period of twenty-one years after the war, Commodore Rodgers was principally engaged in fulfilling the duties of president of the board of naval commissioners. In that time, he was at sea about two years—from 1825 to 1827. In the summer of 1832, his constitution was greatly shattered by a severe attack of Asiatic cholera. To restore his health, he made a voyage to Europe; but he was now too far gone; and, after lingering two years longer, he died at Philadelphia, on the 1st of August, 1838, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

To Commodore Rodgers the navy of the United States owed much during the second war with England. He laboured earnestly to raise the character of its discipline.

JOHN McLEAN.

Judge McLean was born in Morris county, New Jersey, in 1785. Four years after his birth, his father removed to the West, and finally settled in Ohio. Here young McLean received a scanty common-school education. Having determined, however, to pursue the legal profession, he engaged at the age of eighteen to write in the clerk's office at Cincinnati, in order to maintain himself, by devoting a portion of his time to that labour while engaged in his studies. In

1807, he was admitted to the bar, and he entered upon the practice of the law at Lebanon, Ohio.

In October, 1812, Mr. McLean became a candidate to represent his district in Congress, and was elected by a large majority over his opponents. He was an ardent supporter of the war and of the general principles of President's Madison's administration. In 1814 he was again elected to Congress by a unanimous vote. He remained a member of the house of representatives until 1816, when the legislature of Ohio, having elected him a judge of the supreme court of the State, he resigned his seat.

Judge McLean remained six years upon the supreme bench of Ohio, discharging the duties of his position with rare ability and success. In 1822 he was appointed by President Monroe, commissioner of the general land-office; and in 1823 he was appointed postmaster-general.

In 1829, Mr. McLean was appointed by President Jackson an associate justice of the United States supreme court, after he had refused the offer of the war and navy departments. He entered upon the duties of this high position at the January term of 1830, and up to the present time he has discharged the demands of the office with an ability that has commanded general respect.

JAMES BARBOUR.

James Barbour, secretary of war under Mr. Adams's administration, was born near Montpelier, Orange county, Virginia. He was the son of Colonel Thomas Barbour, a distinguished patriot and soldier of the Revolution. He was thoroughly educated, and enjoyed the highest advantages for the study of the law. His abilities were soon recognised after his admission to the bar, and he was elected to a seat in the legislature. He was then elected speaker of the house of delegates. His popularity gradually increased, and he was successively elected governor of the State and senator in Congress. In the latter body, Mr. Barbour was an active, eloquent, and influential member. President John Quincy Adams selected him for the post of secretary of war, on account of his energy and talent, and he discharged the duties of that position with rare success. He was then appointed minister to Great Britain. Governor Barbour died on the 8th of June, 1842, at the age of sixty-six years. His character was estimable, and his public services illustrated the extent of his capacity.

PETER B. PORTER.

This distinguished soldier was born on the 14th of August, 1773, in the town of Salisbury, Connecticut. After graduating at Yale College, he studied law and became distinguished in the profession he had chosen. He gradually acquired popularity, and was elected a representative to Congress, where he remained until the opening of the war of 1812. He then took charge of the militia on the Northern frontier, and performed valuable service during the active campaigns in that quarter. In the latter part of 1812, he accompanied General Smyth's expedition into Canada as the second in command. Smyth contemplated a more effectual invasion of this province than that which had recently failed; and on finding his forces inadequate, published a proclamation inviting volunteers to join him. This was so successful, that, on the 27th of November, his army had swelled to four thousand five hundred men. Of these, the New York and Pennsylvania volunteers were commanded by General Porter. The expedition had provided for its use seventy public boats, each carrying forty men, five boats belonging to individuals, having one hundred men, and a number of smaller ones.

Before setting out for Canada, General Smyth published a second proclamation, stating his ability and determination to take the country in a short time, inviting all patriots to join his standard, and excusing the failure of former enterprises, on the score of the incapacity of their leaders. This was soon afterward followed by one from General Porter, in which he set forth the necessity of the volunteers speedily co-operating with Smyth.

At three o'clock in the morning of the 28th, the boats put off from the American shore, but they had not proceeded one-fourth of the way across, when the British batteries opened a galling fire, and five of them were obliged to return. In one of these was Colonel Winder of the fourteenth infantry, who commanded the troops to whom this hazardous duty was assigned. The command of the fourteenth devolved therefore upon Lieutenant-colonel Bœrstler, who was in one of the advance boats with several resolute infantry officers. A severe fire of musketry and of grape-shot from two pieces of flying artillery, was poured upon this part of the squadron, but they effected their landing in good order, formed on the shore, and advanced to the accomplishment of their object.

Lieutenant-commandant Angus and his officers, assisted by Samuel

Swartwout, Esq., of New York, an enterprising citizen, who happened to be at the station, acted as volunteers after the landing of the troops, and joining their little band of sailors to the regulars, under Captain King of the fifteenth, they stormed the enemy's principal batteries and drove him to the Red House, where he rallied with two hundred and fifty men, and commenced a rapid fire of musketry upon the assailants. Sixty regulars and fifty sailors composed the whole American force. The success at the battery, the guns of which were spiked, was followed up by a desperate assault upon the Red House. The sailors charged with boarding-pikes and cutlasses, the regulars with the bayonet, and, after a hard and destructive engagement, they routed the enemy, fired the house in which he quartered, and made about fifty prisoners. Lieutenant-colonel Bœrstler attacked and dispersed the enemy lower down the river, and took also several prisoners. Every battery between Chippewa and Fort Erie was now carried; the cannon spiked or destroyed, and sixteen miles of the Canadian frontier laid waste and deserted. The boats returned with the wounded and the prisoners, leaving Captain King and twelve men, who were so anxious to complete the destruction of every breast-work and barrack of the enemy, that they resolved on remaining in possession of the conquered ground, until the main body of the army should cross over the strait and march to the assault of the British forts. Sailing-master Watts fell at the head of his division of the sailors, while he was gallantly leading them on. Midshipman Graham received a severe wound, which caused an amputation of a leg. Seven out of twelve of the navy officers were wounded. Captain Morgan of the twelfth, Captain Sprowl and Captain Dix of the thirteenth, and Lieutenant Lisson, the two latter of whom were badly wounded, took a very distinguished part in the engagement.

At sunrise part of the remaining troops at Buffalo began their embarkation. They numbered about two thousand under the immediate command of General Porter. Two thousand more paraded on shore, awaiting a second embarkation. About five hundred British appeared on the opposite shore. When the troops had become impatient with waiting, General Smyth unexpectedly ordered them to disembark, silencing their murmurs with the assurance that the expedition was postponed only in order to place the boats in a better condition. The regiments then retired to their quarters, and the enemy commenced labouring actively upon their disabled batteries.

On the 29th (Sunday) the troops were ordered down to the navy-yard so as to be ready for crossing the next morning at nine o'clock. The point and time of embarking would have exposed the Americans

to the whole British fire. This was perceived by the officers, who waited on the commander with their objections to his plan. He accordingly altered both, determining to land the troops five miles below the navy-yard before daylight on Tuesday morning.

On Monday evening, seven boats for Colonel Swift's regiment and eight for the new volunteers, were brought up the river and placed at different points, so that the noise and confusion of embarking the whole at one place might be avoided. At half an hour after three, these boats were occupied and took their station opposite the navy yard. The regulars were to proceed on the right, General Tannehill's volunteers in the centre, and the New York volunteers on the left. General Porter, with a chosen set of men, was appointed to proceed in front to direct the landing, and to join the New York volunteers when on the opposite shore. On the arrival of the boats which were to compose the van, General Porter found that the artillery were embarking in the scows with as much haste as possible; but one hour elapsed before the regular infantry attempted to follow, when Colonel Winder, at the head of the fourteenth, entered the boats with great order and silence. Every thing seemed to promise a speedy and successful issue; the troops to be embarked were now nearly all in readiness to proceed; General Porter dropped to the front of the line with a flag, to designate the leading boat, and the word only was wanted to put off. The front of the line was one-fourth of a mile from the shore, when the rear was observed to be retarded, and General Porter received orders from General Smyth to disembark immediately. He was at the same time informed that the invasion of Canada was abandoned for the season, that the regulars were ordered into winter quarters, and that, as the services of the volunteers could now be dispensed with, they might stack their arms and return to their homes. Previously to this order an interview had taken place between General Smyth and a British major, who came over with a flag. The scene of discontent which followed was without parallel. Four thousand men, without order or restraint, indignantly discharged their muskets in every direction. The person of the commanding general was threatened. Upward of one thousand men, of all classes of society, had suddenly left their homes and families, and had made great sacrifices to obey the call of their country under General Smyth's invitation. He possessed their strongest confidence, and was gaining their warmest affections; he could lead to no post of danger to which they would not follow. But now, the hopes of his government, the expectations of the people, the desires of the army, were all prostrated, and he was obliged

to hear the bitter reproaches and the indignant epithets of the men whom he had promised to lead to honour, to glory, to renown. The inhabitants refused to give him quarters in their houses, or to protect him from the rage of those who considered themselves the victims of his imbecility or his deceit. He was obliged constantly to shift his tent to avoid the general clamour, and to double the guard surrounding it; and he was several times fired at when he ventured without it. An application was made to him by the volunteers, to permit *them* to invade the enemy's territory under General Porter, and they pledged themselves to him to take Fort Erie if he would give them four pieces of flying artillery. This solicitation was evaded, and the volunteer troops proceeded to their homes, execrating the man whom they had respected, and the general on whose talents and promises they had placed the most general reliance.

In his defence of this disgraceful affair, General Smyth indulged in the assertion "that the volunteers and the neighbouring people were dissatisfied, and that it had been in the power of the contracting agent [General Porter] to excite some clamour against the course pursued, as he found the contract a losing one, and would wish to see the army in Canada that he might not be bound to supply it.

This unwarrantable assertion drew forth some recrimination from General Porter which eventuated in a duel; but the affair was afterward amicably settled.

At Chippewa, General Porter commanded the New York and Pennsylvania volunteers, with some Indians, as part of General Scott's brigade. In the afternoon, he left the American camp, advanced through the woods and came upon the British scouting parties in such a position as to place them between his own fire and that of the American main army. Soon after he encountered the whole British column drawn up in order of battle. Here he behaved with great gallantry until reinforced; and received the personal compliments of the commander-in-chief, General Brown.

General Brown thus mentions his services in the action at Niagara: —"It was with great pleasure I saw the good order and intrepidity of General Porter's volunteers from the moment of their arrival; but during the last charge of the enemy, those qualities were conspicuous. Stimulated by their gallant leader, they precipitated themselves upon the enemy's line, and made all the prisoners which were taken at this point of the action."

After the battle, General Porter marched with the army to Fort Erie, where his volunteers, together with the riflemen, occupied the centre. He was present at the memorable defence of that place,

and by his conduct won the following notice from General Gaines: —"Brigadier-general Porter, commanding the New York and Pennsylvania volunteers, manifested a degree of vigilance and judgment in his preparatory arrangements, as well as military skill and courage in action, which proves him to be worthy the confidence of his country and the brave volunteers who fought under him."

For his bravery on the Niagara frontier General Porter was presented by Congress with a gold medal, together with the thanks of that body. After the war he was again elected to Congress, and received during his term marks of esteem from several public bodies. He acted as secretary of war under President Adams, and on the change of administration retired to private life. After a long season of domestic tranquillity, he died at Niagara, New York, March 20th, 1844, at the age of seventy-one.

ANDREW JACKSON.

No man occupies a more conspicuous place in the annals of the great American republic than General Andrew Jackson. He stamped an impression upon the civil and military affairs of the country, which, whether good or evil, cannot be effaced. He was born on the 15th of March, 1767, at the Waxhaw settlement, in South Carolina. His parents were natives of the North of Ireland, who had emigrated to America two years previous to the birth of the subject of this memoir. At an early age, Andrew lost his father, and the task of bringing him up devolved upon his mother, a woman of energy and intelligence. Intending him, it is said, to become a clergyman, she resolved, though restricted in her pecuniary circumstances, to give him a liberal education. For this purpose, she placed him at an academy, where he continued until his studies were interrupted by the advance of the British troops into the neighbourhood, during the Revolutionary war. Young as he was, (scarcely fourteen years of age,) in company with an elder brother he joined the American army.

Before long they were made prisoners by a party of British dragoons, by whom they were badly treated. The character of the conqueror Cæsar was seen in his youthful defiance of Sylla and of the pirates. The character of Jackson was no less nobly displayed in his captivity. He was directed to clean the boots of one of the British officers; but, fearless of consequences, he refused. Enraged, the officer struck him a blow on the head with his sword, the mark of which young Jackson carried with him to his grave, as a continual memento of British tyranny. His brother Robert was so badly treated that he died from his injuries, soon after they were both exchanged.

Andrew Jackson

While Jackson was still a boy, his mother died, and he was left without an adviser or protector, but with a small patrimony. He now became reckless and extravagant. But the necessity of doing something to obtain a subsistence brought him to reflection. He reformed his habits and determined to become a lawyer. Jackson commenced the study of the law at Salisbury, in North Carolina, in the winter of 1784, and was admitted to the bar in 1786. In 1788 he removed to Nashville, then a new settlement in the western district of North Carolina. This district having been ceded to the United States, and organized into a territory in 1790, he was appointed to the office of United States attorney; and when the territory, in its turn, in 1796, became the State of Tennessee, he was a member of the convention to frame the constitution for it, and took a conspicuous part in the proceedings of this body. He was immediately afterward chosen a representative, and in the next year, a senator in Congress. But his seat in the senate he held only for a single session, alleging, as a reason for resigning it, his distaste for the intrigues of politics. On this, he was appointed by the legislature of Tennessee to be a judge of the supreme court of that State; an office which he accepted with reluctance, and from which he soon retired to his farm on the Cumberland River, near Nashville. And there he continued to reside till the breaking out of the war with Great Britain in 1812.

During the earlier part of his residence in Tennessee, General Jackson had repeatedly distinguished himself by his prowess, in the warfare carried on by the settlers with their Indian neighbours, and had even earned from the latter, by his exploits, the appellations of "Sharp Knife" and "Pointed Arrow." That, after attaining to a prominent position in civil life, he should be selected by his fellow-citizens to occupy a corresponding military rank among them, was therefore almost a matter of course. The war of 1812, accordingly, found him a major-general of one of the divisions of the Tennessee militia. In the month of November of that year, he proceeded, by the direction of the government, at the head of a body of between two and three thousand volunteers, who had assembled on his invitation, down the Mississippi to Natchez, for the protection of the country against an apprehended hostile movement on the part of the Indians. The danger having passed away, he was ordered by the secretary of war to disband his troops on the spot. This order he did not hesitate to disobey, on account, as he stated, of many of his men being sick, and unprovided with the means of paying their expenses on their way home. They re-

turned accordingly in a body with their general, whose apology for the course which he pursued was accepted by the government.

In 1813 and 1814, General Jackson was employed against the Creek and Muscogee Indians, who had invaded the frontier settlements of Alabama and Georgia, and inflicted on the inhabitants the usual horrors of savage warfare. After a succession of bloody victories achieved by him over those trifles, they agreed, by a treaty concluded in August, 1814, to lay down their arms. In the month May of this year, he was appointed a major-general in the service of the United States; and, having first seized upon the town of Pensacola, in consequence of the admission into its harbour, by the Spanish governor, of a British squadron to refit, he proceeded to take the command of the forces intended for the defence of New Orleans against the approaching attack of the enemy. On arriving there on the 1st of December, he took his measures with the utmost decision and promptness. Becoming convinced of the expediency of taking precautions against the treachery of some disaffected individuals, he proposed to the legislature of Louisiana, then in session, to suspend the privilege of the writ of habeas corpus. Impatient, however, with the time consumed in deliberating on his proposal, he proclaimed martial law, thus at once superseding the civil authority by the introduction of a rigid military police. Toward the enemy he acted with the same determined energy. Scarcely had the British troops effected a landing, when he marched against them, and by unexpectedly assailing them, in the night of the 22d of December, gained some advantages; the most important of which was that for which this movement of the general was chiefly made, namely, the impresssion produced upon his followers of their own ability to perform successfully the part assigned to them, at least while commanded by him, as well as that communicated to the invaders, of the formidable character of the opposition which they were destined to encounter. The contest for the possession of New Orleans was brought to a close by the memorable battle of the 8th of January, 1815, which raised the reputation of the American commander to the highest pitch among his countrymen, and served as a satisfactory apology with many for the strong measures adopted by him before the landing of the enemy, as well as for others which he adopted immediately after the retreat of the latter.

General Jackson's next public employment was the conduct of the war against the Seminole Indians, in 1818. With a force composed of Tennessee volunteers and Georgia militia, he penetrated into Florida to the retreats of the savages and fugitive slaves who

had joined them, and set fire to their villages. He likewise took possession, without hesitation, of several of the Spanish posts in that region, whence the Indians had been supplied with arms and ammunition, and executed two Englishmen who had been actively engaged in this trade. The posts were restored by the orders of the government; but an attempt in the house of representatives in Congress to inflict a censure upon General Jackson, for the irregularity of his proceedings, was defeated, after very protracted debates, by a considerable majority. When Florida was transferred by Spain to the United States, he was appointed the first governor of the new territory, (1821.) He resigned this office, and returned to his farm near Nashville, in the following year. In 1823 he was once more chosen to represent the States of Tennessee in the senate of the United States, but resigned his seat in that body on becoming a prominent candidate for the presidency. Of the electoral votes which were given in the end of the year 1824, he received ninety-nine, Mr. Adams eighty-four, Mr. Crawford forty-one, and Mr. Clay thirty-seven. The election devolved, by the provisions of the constitution, on the members of the house of representatives in Congress, voting by States, and Mr. Adams was selected to be the president. This choice caused great excitement among the friends of Jackson, who was believed to be the preference of the people, and they determined to bring him forward as a candidate at the next presidential election. Measures were concerted, and the entire opposition rallied to his support. In the fall of 1828 he was elected president of the United States by a large majority.

On the 4th of March, 1829, General Jackson was inaugurated president. From the outset his administration was marked by features which distinguished it from all that had preceded it, and the country was led to expect a new order of things.

General Jackson organized his cabinet by appointing Martin Van Buren, of New York, secretary of state; Samuel D. Ingham, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury; John H. Eaton, of Tennessee, secretary of war; John Branch, of North Carolina, secretary of the navy; and John M. Berrien, of Georgia, attorney-general.

Among some of the first acts of General Jackson's administration was that of removing from offices, within the executive gift, those incumbents who were considered either incompetent or unworthy of the trusts that had been reposed in them. For this he was censured, as possessing a spirit of proscription. Each removal made was blazoned over the country as evidence of a persecuting and intole-

rant spirit. Many of the removed officers even appealed to the people, as though their rights had been violated.

The other acts which marked the commencement of General Jackson's administration were such as had been expected from the well-known energy of his character.

On the opening of Congress in December, 1829, General Jackson presented his first message to the representatives of the nation. It is a very able production; and contains an interesting history of our national relations at that period, and also of the policy that had been commenced, and which was intended to be pursued by General Jackson in the administration of our government.

The veto of the bill authorizing a subscription to the stock of the Maysville and Washington Turnpike Road Company in Kentucky, was the first great act of President Jackson which awakened the denunciations of the opposition. In his veto message, he argued that a general system of internal improvements was unconstitutional.

On the assembling of Congress in December, 1830, General Jackson presented his second message to the representatives of the nation. He explained and expanded the principles of the veto message —his views of the tariff were similar to those he had previously expressed—asserting the constitutionality of the measure, and recommending its review, modification, and the most practicable equalization of its burdens. He objected to the present bank of the United States, and explained the principles of the institution, to which he alluded in his former message.

It was before the close of this congressional session, that the controversy between General Jackson and Mr. Calhoun, vice-president of the United States, took place, which brought out, on the part of the latter, a voluminous correspondence between the parties interested in the subject-matter of dispute.

It was shown that Mr. Calhoun had disapproved the course pursued by General Jackson in the invasion of Florida, while the former was a member of Mr. Monroe's cabinet, and had advised a censure. From this time forth, all intercourse between the president and the vice-president was at an end.

An interesting crisis was now approaching in the cabinet which General Jackson had selected to aid him in the discharge of the arduous duties of government. This was its dissolution. The causes which led to this result, were clearly and concisely developed in the letter of Mr. Martin Van Buren, secretary of state, tendering his resignation to the president.

The name of the secretary had been brought forward as a candi-

date for the succession, and he did not think it proper that a person in that situation should remain a member of the cabinet. The resignation of Messrs. Eaton, Branch, Ingham, and Berrien immediately followed that of Mr. Van Buren. The reasons for this action were variously stated by each, but the grand cause was a want of harmony among the members of the cabinet.

The dissolution of the cabinet was productive of no prejudice to General Jackson; it did not injure or embarrass the operations of government; an angry fermentation only was for a time produced among a portion of its dissolving elements; when every thing connected with the peace and harmony of the administration assumed its accustomed aspect, and its vigorous and politic measures were prosecuted with the same zeal and fidelity that characterized the operations of its energetic head, previous to the dissolution.

General Jackson reorganized his cabinet by appointing Edward Livingston, of Louisiana, secretary of state; Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire, secretary of the navy; Louis McLane, of Delaware, secretary of the treasury; and Lewis Cass, of Ohio, secretary of war. Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, was appointed to the office of attorney-general. With it, General Jackson proceeded in the administration of the general government with renewed energy.

The twenty-second Congress of the United States convened in December, 1831, when General Jackson presented to the representatives of the nation his annual message.

This session of Congress was remarkable for its turbulent display of party spirit. Martin Van Buren having been nominated as minister to Great Britain, was rejected by the senate. Various reasons were assigned for this action of the senate, but the friends of the administration denounced that body as being actuated by a paltry feeling of hostility to the president. Mr. Van Buren was considered as a martyr by his party. Among the most urgent subjects of consideration at this session of Congress was the apportionment of representatives according to the census of 1830. Finally, the ratio fixed was one representative to forty-seven thousand seven hundred inhabitants.

But the subject which towered above all others was the question of the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank. The president was known to be hostile to the institution which then existed. He believed it to be both unconstitutional and inexpedient. The bill for renewing the charter passed through Congress early in July, 1831; but the president returned it to the senate with his veto, and an attempt to pass it without his consent failed. This

veto produced a profound sensation throughout the country. The administration lost strength in some sections, but in the interior of the country, where the bank was in bad odour, the number of its friends increased. The tariff, internal improvement, and the disposal of the public lands were the principal topics of discussion during the remainder of the session; but the excitement upon the bank question chiefly occupied the public mind, until the passage of a tariff act which directly admitted the principle of protection.

South Carolina now boldly asserted the doctrine of nullification, and proclaimed that any attempt to enforce the revenue laws in that State should be resisted, if necessary, by force. This brought matters to a crisis. The president issued a proclamation stating the nature of the federal Union, and his determination to execute the laws. Happily there was no call for a resort to force. The passage of a compromise tariff act conciliated the nullifiers, and the republic was spared the horrors of civil war.

During a portion of this administration, an Indian war raged on the north-western frontier, in which the famous chief Black Hawk was the principal actor. The difficulty grew out of a treaty made with the Indians at Prairie du Chien, in 1823. An article in this treaty provided that any of the Five Nations concerned in it, visiting the United States, should be protected from all insults by the garrison. Notwithstanding this, in the summer of 1827, a party of twenty-four Chippeways on a visit to Fort Snelling, were fallen upon by a band of Sioux, who killed and wounded eight of them. The commandant of the fort captured four of the Sioux, and delivered them into the hands of the Chippeways, who immediately shot them. Red Bird, the Sioux chief, repaired to Prairie du Chien with three companions, desperate as himself, about the first of July, and there killed two persons, wounded a third, and without taking plunder, retired to Bad-axe River. Here, soon after, he waylaid two keel-boats that had been conveying some missionaries to Fort Snelling, in one of which, two persons were killed; the others escaped with little injury.

Not long after, General Atkinson marched into the Winnebago country, and captured some hostile Winnebagoes and Red Bird, who died soon after in prison. The Indians, who were imprisoned for the murder at Prairie du Chien were discharged, and Black Hawk and two others, who had been imprisoned for the attack on the boats before mentioned, were also discharged.

The foregoing account shows that Black Hawk was imprisoned on suspicion, perhaps justly, but this was not his sole cause of complaint.

His friend Red Bird had died in prison. Indians were executed for murdering whites, but it did not appear that whites were treated in like manner for murdering Indians. These causes had long been producing a feeling of disaffection among the Northern and Western tribes. Hence, it is not singular that the whites of the frontier of Illinois believed the Indians, from Canada to Mexico, more hostile than at any period since the war of 1812.

The Sacs, who had served Great Britain against the Americans, were the most conspicuous in their enmity. This band of Sacs rendezvoused at their chief village on the Mississippi, where they had collected such of their neighbours as wished to engage in the war.

General Gaines marched to, and possessed himself of this village, on the 26th of June. This he did without opposition; for when the Indians discovered the army, they fled across the river, and displayed a flag for parley. Meantime, their associates had abandoned them, and the Sacs were left to manage affairs in the best manner they could. They, therefore, made peace with due submission, and General Gaines was of opinion they were as completely humbled as if they had been chastised in battle, and were less disposed to disturb the frontier than if that event had taken place. Previous to this, he had declared his belief that whatever might be their hostile feelings, they would abstain from the use of tomahawks and fire-arms, except in self-defence.

About the same time, a difficulty seems to have arisen between the Sacs and Menominies, in which twenty-eight of the latter had been murdered. Agreeably to an article of the treaty before mentioned, the United States obliged themselves to interpose between these and other Western tribes in cases of trouble. But these murders were not all the Sacs had done. They had recrossed the Mississippi, and occupied the country on its east bank, which they had the year before ceded to the United States.

Black Hawk was the alleged leader in both cases. Therefore, General Atkinson set out on an expedition, hoping to make prisoner of Black Hawk, who was said to be the fomenter of all these disturbances. It was also alleged that he had little respect for treaties, and that he had, in former negotiations, so far overreached our commissioners, as to make peace on his own terms. This is the first acknowledgment of that chief's talents in matters of diplomacy.

General Atkinson was at a place on Rock River called Dixon's Ferry, May 15th, when he received news that a force which had marched to Sycamore Creek, thirty miles in advance of him, had met with a total defeat. This detachment had been sent forward on

account of the great number of murders which had been committed in that vicinity. Among the sufferers in that neighbourhood, were the family of a Mr. Hall, whose fate had created much sympathy; his two daughters, one eighteen, and the other sixteen, having been carried into captivity, after having seen their mother tomahawked and scalped, and twenty others murdered in the same way at Indian Creek. These young women were humanely treated during their captivity, and afterward restored to their friends.

The force that marched to Sycamore Creek was about two hundred and seventy-five strong, under the command of Major Stillman. When the news of the massacre at Indian Creek arrived, they obtained leave of General Whitesides to march to the scene of murder. On Monday, the 14th of May, they came upon a few Indians, whether enemies or not, it is not probable they inquired, for their march was that of revenge; therefore two of them were shot, and two more captured. The same day, at evening, when the army had arrived at a convenient place to encamp, and were making some preparations for that purpose, a small band of Indians was discovered bearing a white flag. One company of men went out to meet them, but soon discovered they were only a decoy. How they ascertained this fact, we are not informed. This company of discoverers, therefore fell back upon the main body, which, by this time, had remounted, and as strange as it is true, this misguided band rushed forward, regardless of all order for several miles, till they crossed Sycamore Creek, and were completely in the power of the Indians. What follows, equals a similar affair at Pawtucket. The Americans had crossed the creek man by man, as they came to it, and all the Indians had to do, was to wait till a goodly number had come within their grasp. It was moonlight when the fight began, and after a few struggles, the whites fled in greater disorder, if possible, than they came. The Indians, after making the onset with their guns, fell on them with knives and tomahawks, and had not the night, and situation of the country, favoured their flight, nearly all the army must have been cut off.

The Indians were supposed to be nearly two thousand strong, and it was said twelve of them were killed. Of the whites, only thirteen are reported killed. Their flight equalled that of General St. Clair's army. Fourteen hundred men, immediately after, marched to the scene of action to bury the dead, and their account of the barbarities committed on the bodies of the slain, quite equals any thing before recounted.

The cholera, the following July, raged among the troops opposed

to the Indians, so severely that several companies were entirely broken up, and many among them perished, in a manner too revolting to be described. Of one corps of two hundred and eight men, but nine were left alive. General Dodge surprised a party of twelve Indians at Galena, and cut them off to a man; the whites scalped the slain, that they might not be outdone in these or any other barbarities by their foes. Black Hawk assembled his forces at a point between Rock and Wisconsin rivers, where he expected to meet the whites in a general battle. His warriors amounted to one thousand, or more. General Atkinson had nearly double that number of men, and resolved to meet him as soon as possible. Great hopes were entertained that, in such an event, a finishing blow would be given to the war. But Black Hawk was too wary thus to expose himself to utter and irretrievable ruin, and accordingly made good his retreat into an interminable wilderness.

General Atkinson made his way to Cashkoning, through woods, swamps, and defiles almost impassable, and constantly exposed to the danger of an ambuscade. On his arrival at this place, he was, apparently, no nearer his enemy, than at the commencement of this perilous march. Indeed, fair, open battle seemed to be a most unlikely thing to invite Black Hawk, as his numbers were greatly inferior to the Americans. Therefore, no hope of bringing him to terms seemed left, unless it could be effected by some stratagem.

While General Atkinson was making this fruitless march, General Dodge was about forty miles from Fort Winnebago, following the trail of some Indians, who proved to be a flying, and nearly starved band, capable of offering little or no resistance. But, as they were attacked in the evening after, sixteen were butchered; the rest escaped. To form some idea of their sad condition, we have only to read the reports of the American commander to the war department, in which he states that they found many dead as they marched along, very much emaciated, and having died evidently of starvation.

It became a matter of question to the two commanders where they should seek their enemy. From the supposition that they might have descended the Wisconsin, and so escaped across the Mississippi that way, General Dodge recommended a cannon should be placed on the river to cut them off; and General Atkinson marched for the Blue Mounds, with an army, consisting of regular troops and mounted men, to the number of sixteen hundred.

The steamboat Warrior was soon after sent up the Mississippi, with a small force on board, in hopes they might somewhere discover the savages. Upon the arrival of the boat at Prairie du Chien, the

last of July, she was despatched to Wapashaw village, one hundred and twenty miles higher on the river, to inform the inhabitants of the approach of the Sacs, and to order all the friendly Indians down to Prairie du Chien. On the return of the steamboat, they met one of the Sioux bands, who told them their enemies were encamped on Bad-axe River to the number of four hundred. The Warrior here stopped to take in some wood and prepare for action. They discovered the enemy about four o'clock on the afternoon of the 1st of August, who, as they approached, raised a white flag, which being looked upon as a decoy, no attention was paid to it. They declined sending a boat on board when ordered.

After giving them a few minutes to remove their women and children, (a piece of courtesy somewhat rare in our border wars,) the boat fired a six-pounder, loaded with canister, and followed by a severe fire of musketry. The battle continued for about an hour, when she weighed anchor and proceeded to Prairie-du-Chien. Twenty three Indians were killed and wounded. The Americans lost none. Before the steamboat could return to the battle field next morning, General Atkinson and his army had engaged the Indians. The Warrior joined the contest; the army this day lost eight or nine killed, and seventeen wounded, whom the Warrior took to Prairie du Chien at night, and also captives to the number of thirty-six, women and children. The spot where this battle took place was about forty miles above Prairie du Chien, on the north side of the Mississippi, opposite the mouth of the Iowa. It was very fortunate for the whites that they were able to co-operate on land and water at the same time.

General Atkinson having formed a junction with General Dodge, the army crossed the Wisconsin on the 28th of July, and soon after discovered the route of the Indians, who were flying from the scene of action. The country through which the army had to march was a continual series of mountains, covered with a thick growth of heavy timber and much underwood. The valleys were so deep as to make them almost as difficult to cross; but nothing could damp the ardour of the troops as they pressed on to overtake Black Hawk, before he should be able to escape across the Mississippi.

The place where the Indians were overtaken was very favourable for them, as may be judged by their being able to maintain a battle of more than three hours, in the wretched and nearly famished condition they were in, and when their whole force only amounted to three hundred warriors. They were discovered in a deep ravine at the foot of a precipice, over which the army had to pass. Notwith-

standing the misery of their condition, nothing but the bayonet's point routed them. Old logs, high grass, and large trees covered them until the charge was made, and as they were driven from one covert, they readily found another, and thus protracted the contest. At length, General Atkinson disposed his forces so as to come upon them from above, below, and in the centre. No chance now remained to the Indians, but to swim the Mississippi, or elude the vigilance of their enemy by land, who had nearly encompassed them. Many, therefore, adventured to cross the river; but as the slaughter was greatest there, few escaped. However, a considerable number succeeded in escaping by land. One hundred and fifty of them were supposed to have been killed in this battle.

Black Hawk was among those who escaped, but in such haste as to leave even his papers behind him, one of which was a certificate from British officers that he had served faithfully, and fought valiantly for them, in the late war against the United States. The prisoners taken at this battle, stated that at the one which occurred at Wisconsin, between their army and that under the command of General Dodge, they lost sixty-eight, besides many wounded.

It was now believed the Sacs would be glad to make peace on any terms. Accordingly, General Atkinson determined to order Keokuk to demand a surrender of the remaining principal men of the hostile party. From the battle-ground, the commanders went down the river to Prairie du Chien (Fort Crawford,) in the Warrior, and the army followed by land. On their way they killed and captured a few Sacs.

The desperate fortunes of the hostile Indians, induced many of their countrymen to volunteer to hunt them down. One hundred Sioux obtained permission to seek them, and were followed by a small band of the same nation; they overtook the enemy, and killed about one hundred and twenty. About this time, Keokuk, the friendly Sac chief, above mentioned, found a nephew of his had been accused of the murder of a man named Martin; he gave him up to be dealt with according to the proof of his crime, which took place in Warren county, Illinois.

Black Hawk, hunted like the wild deer of the forest from place to place, after many wanderings and much suffering, was at last captured, and delivered up to General Street at Prairie du Chien. His companion in his flight and captivity was the Prophet. They showed a proper sense of self-respect by appearing before the commander in full dress, which consisted of tanned white deer-skin. One of the Winnebagoes who captured them, delivered a speech on

the occasion to General Street, desiring the fulfilment of the promises made to those who should capture and bring alive these men into the hands of the whites.

In reply to this speech, the general said, that he wished the captors and the prisoners to go to Rock Island, where the president had desired General Scott and the governor of Illinois to hold a council. Both the Indians, who had taken these prisoners, seemed desirous that rewards for the deed should be given to their tribe rather than to them personally. Eleven chiefs of the Sacs and Foxes, besides Black Hawk and the Prophet, were sent to Jefferson Barracks, and there put in irons. In September, a treaty was made by the United States with the Winnebagoes, and also with the Sacs and Foxes. The Winnebagoes ceded all their lands south of the Wisconsin, and east of the Mississippi, amounting to 1,600,000 acres of valuable land. The treaty with the Sacs and Foxes gave to the government 600,000 acres more, of a quality not inferior to any between the same parallels of latitude, and abounding with lead ore.

By this same treaty, Black Hawk, his two sons, the Prophet, Neopope, and five other principal warriors of the hostile band, were to remain in the hands of the whites, as hostages, during the president's pleasure.

Black Hawk and his son were taken to Washington to visit the president. At different places on his route, he received many valuable presents, and was looked upon with great curiosity and interest. They returned by way of Detroit, and arrived at Fort Armstrong in August, 1833.

In the mean time, trouble occurred concerning the north-eastern boundary of Maine. The King of the Netherlands, to whose arbitration the question of boundary had been submitted, had given the award in such a way that all that had been claimed by Great Britain was obtained. The inhabitants of the disputed territory resisted the award, and elected representatives to the Legislature of Maine. Thereupon, a British military force was sent into the territory, and three persons who had taken part in a town meeting, were arrested and thrown into prison. This course of action created great excitement throughout the United States. But the president was authorized to open negotiations for the settlement of the question.

The foreign relations of the republic were managed with great energy and ability during the first term of General Jackson's administration. Advantageous treaties were concluded with France, Austria, Naples, Turkey, and Mexico.

As General Jackson's first term drew to a close, parties arrayed

themselves for a violent struggle. The opposition was very powerful but divided. The candidates for the presidency were General Jackson, Henry Clay, John Floyd, and William Wirt. The candidates for the vice-presidency were Martin Van Buren, John Sergeant, William Wilkins, Henry Lee, and Amos Ellmaker. General Jackson and Martin Van Buren were the successful candidates.

The second presidential term of General Jackson commenced on the 4th of March, 1833. The difficulty with South Carolina and other causes of public excitement having been settled, the new term began amid general tranquillity. But the expectations of the continuance of peace were not destined to be fulfilled. The question of removing the government deposites from the Bank of the United States was now agitated. The president had determined to remove the deposites although Congress had refused to authorize the act. Mr. Duane, secretary of the treasury, refusing to obey the order of the president, was removed, and Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, appointed in his place, effected the removal.

Commercial distress immediately followed. The retrenchment of the bank affected private credit deeply, and the business of the country was interrupted to a ruinous extent. When Congress assembled, it was found, that the administration could command a majority in the house of representatives, but that the opposition was dominant in the senate. That body passed resolutions censuring the president for removing the deposites. The president sent his protest against this action, and demanded that it should be entered upon the minutes. But the demand was refused. Intense excitement was created throughout the Union. Petitions poured into Congress, asking for some measures of relief.

On the 2d of June, 1834, the opposition succeeded in electing John Bell, of Tennessee, speaker of the house of representatives, in place of Andrew Stevenson, resigned. In the same month, some change occurred in the cabinet: Mr. McLane having resigned, John Forsyth, of Georgia, was appointed secretary of state, and Mahlon Dickerson, of New Jersey, secretary of the navy, in place of Levi Woodbury, appointed secretary of the treasury.

The chief measures adopted by Congress during the remainder of General Jackson's administration were that relating to the coinage of the mint, by which the quantity of gold and silver coin was greatly increased, several acts for carrying out internal improvements, and a bill to regulate the deposites of the public money in the several States. In March, 1836, the senate confirmed the appointment of

Roger B. Taney as chief-justice of the supreme court, in place of the celebrated John Marshall, deceased.

In the fall of 1836, the presidential election occurred. There were numerous candidates for both the highest offices in the gift of the people, the opposition being split up into numerous factions. Martin Van Buren, the administration candidate, was elected to the presidency by a majority over all others. There being no choice for the second office, the United States senate chose the highest candidate, Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky.

Having issued a farewell address to his countrymen, embodying his political views and sentiments, General Jackson remained at Washington to witness the inauguration of his friend, Martin Van Buren, and then retired to his home, the Hermitage, near Nashville, Tennessee. There he lived, honoured and respected, until his death, on the 8th of June, 1845, at the age of seventy-eight years.

In person, General Jackson was tall and slender, but compactly built. His countenance indicated a firm will and a keen intellect. His public character was marked by the strongest features. Daring firmness and decision, and that highest quality of a great man, the perception of the proper time to disobey a rule, were conspicuous in his civil and military career. His mind was solid rather than brilliant, and his judgment was usually sound. The measures of his administration are still discussed with much party spirit; but we believe that it is now generally conceded that he was a vigorous and powerful executive, whom no party could swerve from the path which his mind approved.

LOUIS McLANE.

Louis McLane was the son of Colonel Allan McLane, a gallant officer in the Revolution. He was born at Smyrna, Delaware, on the 28th of May, 1786. He displayed the enterprising spirit of his father at an early age. In 1798 he obtained a midshipman's warrant, and served with courage on a cruise of a year. At the entreaty of his mother, he then resigned his commission, and applied himself to completing his education. Having graduated at Newark College, he entered the office of Mr. James A. Bayard, and began the study of law. In 1807 he was admitted to the bar. In 1812 he married

the daughter of Mr. Robert Milligan. At the breaking out of the war of 1812, Mr. McLane evinced a bold and patriotic spirit, and actually served as a private in a volunteer company that marched to the defence of Elkton. In 1816 he was elected to a seat in the house of representatives of the United States, and he continued to be a leading member of that body until 1827. In that year he was elected to a seat in the senate of the United States. His great public services were fully appreciated by General Jackson; and, in 1829, he was appointed minister to Great Britain. He continued at that post two years, and, upon his return, was appointed secretary of the treasury. He discharged the duties of that office with fidelity until 1833, when he was appointed secretary of state. Upon his retirement from public office, Mr. McLane returned to the practice of his profession, in which he was eminent.

EDWARD LIVINGSTON.

Edward Livingston succeeded Mr. Van Buren as secretary of state, under the administration of General Jackson. He belonged to the Livingston family which has contributed so many statesmen to the service of the republic. He was born at Clermont, Montgomery county, New York, in 1764. Graduating at Princeton, in 1781, he studied law at Albany, and was admitted to practice four years afterward. Having established himself in New York, he was, in 1794, chosen to represent that city and some of the adjoining counties in Congress. After six years of useful labour in the national councils, he was appointed by President Jefferson to the office of United States attorney for the district of New York. About the same time he was elected mayor of the city—a station in which he distinguished himself during the prevalence of the yellow-fever in 1803, by "his personal exertions and benevolence, displayed at the risk, and almost with the loss of his life."

Becoming liable to the government for large amounts, in consequence of the misconduct of others, Mr. Livingston resigned his offices, and removed to the lately established Territory of Louisiana. Here, by an untiring devotion to his professional pursuits, he was ultimately enabled to discharge the whole of his liabilities. In 1820, conjointly with Messrs. Moreau and Derbigny, he revised the exist-

ing civil or municipal code of Louisiana; and, in the following year, he undertook alone the formation of a new system of penal law. In 1826 the new code was submitted to the legislature. It is upon this, more, perhaps, than upon any other of his labours, that the lasting reputation of Mr. Livingston will rest.

Meanwhile, in 1823, he had been elected a representative in Congress from Louisiana. Chosen United States senator in 1829, he was appointed secretary of state in 1831. In the summer of 1833 he was sent to France, where he performed his arduous duties as minister from the United States, in a manner as creditable to himself as it was to the country at large. Returning home in 1833, he retired to his family mansion at Rhinebeck, where he died on the 23d of May, 1836.

JOHN FORSYTH.

The successor of Louis McLane as secretary of state was John Forsyth, of Georgia. He was born at Fredericksburg, Virginia, on the 22d of October, 1780. He was graduated at New Jersey College in 1799; was member of Congress from Georgia in 1813–18, and in 1827–29; United States senator in 1818–19, and in 1829–35; governor of Georgia in 1827–29; minister to Spain in 1819–22; and was appointed secretary of state by General Jackson in 1835, which office he held till the end of Mr. Van Buren's administration. "The high offices which, during a great portion of his life, he successfully filled, both in his own particular State and the general government, attest at once the superiority of his abilities and the public estimation of them. To the high advantage of superior talents, he added, also, that of elegance and dignity of manners, which shed a grace on the exalted stations which he filled." He died at Washington city, October 22, 1841, at the age of sixty-one years.

SAMUEL D. INGHAM.

Samuel D. Ingham, first secretary of the treasury under General Jackson's administration, was born and educated in Philadelphia. Being elected to a seat in the national house of representatives, he became an active and influential member of that body during the war of 1812. He advocated the war measures and sustained President

Madison's administration. Having supported General Jackson, in opposition to Mr. Adams, that distinguished man appointed him secretary of the treasury. He performed his duties ably and intelligently, but disagreed with the president on the question of the recharter of the United States Bank, and was superseded by the appointment of Louis McLane, of Delaware, (April, 1831.)

WILLIAM J. DUANE.

The question of the "removal of the deposites" from the Bank of the United States caused a rapid succession of secretaries of the treasury under General Jackson's administration. Louis McLane, the successor of Samuel D. Ingham, being averse to the proposed removal, Mr. William J. Duane was appointed secretary of the treasury in his place, (June 1, 1833.) This gentleman was a native of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in which city he had risen to distinction as a lawyer and politician. Having advocated the election of General Jackson to the presidency, he was taken into the favour of illustrious man. Bnt Mr. Duane was opposed to the removal of the deposites without the consent of Congress; and as he refused to obey the order of the president, he was dismissed on the 23d of September of the same year in which he was appointed. Mr. Duane then resumed the practice of law in his native city. He gained some reputation as a political writer.

ROGER BROOKE TANEY.

Chief-justice Taney was born on the 17th of March, 1777, in Calvert county, Maryland. He received a classical education, and graduated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, in 1795. In the spring of 1796, he commenced the study of the law in Annapolis, where the principal courts of Maryland were then held, and early in 1799, he was admitted to the bar.

Mr. Taney then returned to Calvert county, and began the practice of his profession. His ability and learning soon secured him reputation; for in the fall of the same year, he was elected a delegate to the General Assembly of Maryland. In 1801 he removed

to Fredericktown, Frederick county, where he practised law with great success.

In 1816, Mr. Taney was elected to the senate of Maryland, where he served one term, and then returned to his profession. In 1823 he fixed his residence in Baltimore. In 1829, so great had become his reputation, that he was appointed attorney-general of Maryland, although the governor and council were politically opposed to him, they supporting Mr. Adams for the presidency, and he boldly avowing his preference of General Jackson.

Mr. Taney continued to hold the office of attorney-general of Maryland until June, 1831, when President Jackson appointed him attorney-general of the United States. When it was found difficult to obtain a secretary of the treasury who would dare to remove the deposites from the Bank of the United States, and who possessed sufficient ability to justify such action, Mr. Taney came forward, and was appointed to succeed Mr. Duane in that responsible office. Under his direction, the government deposites were removed from the bank. In June, 1834, the senate rejected the nomination of Mr. Taney for secretary of the treasury, and he then returned to Baltimore, and resumed the practice of the law.

In 1835, Judge Duvall resigned his office as associate-justice of the supreme court, and General Jackson nominated Mr. Taney to fill the vacancy. But the senate refused to act upon the nomination. Before the next session of Congress, Chief-justice Marshall died, and Mr. Taney was thereupon nominated for chief-justice of the supreme court of the United States; and, the political complexion of the senate having changed, his nomination was confirmed by that body in March, 1836. Mr. Taney took his seat upon the bench of the supreme court in January, 1837. Since that time, he has discharged the duties of that lofty position with an ability and impartiality worthy of the illustrious judges who had preceded him upon the bench.

LEVI WOODBURY.

Levi Woodbury, who succeeded Judge Taney as secretary of the treasury, under General Jackson's administration, was born in Francestown, New Hampshire, on the 22d of December, 1789, entered Dartmouth College in 1805, graduated in 1809, and joined the law school at Litchfield the same year. He studied law also in Boston, Exeter, and Francestown; and in September, 1812, com-

menced practice in Francestown. In December, 1816, he was appointed judge of the superior court of New Hampshire. In 1819 he was married, and removed to Portsmouth. He was elected governor of New Hampshire in 1823; was speaker of the house in 1825; and in June of that year was elected senator to Congress; was appointed secretary of the navy in May, 1731; was transferred in 1834 to the treasury department, in which office he continued until 1841, when, upon the incoming of the Harrison administration, he returned to Portsmouth. In March of that year he was re-elected to the senate, where he continued until September, 1845, when he was appointed, by President Polk, justice of the supreme court.

Judge Woodbury died on the 7th of September, 1851, at Portsmouth, in his native State, at the age of sixty-two years. He was a man of great energy and comprehensive mind, and at the time of his death, no man stood higher in the confidence of the political party of which he was a member. During his judicial career, he fully proved that he had many of the most important qualifications for a judge. His decisions were characterized by close reasoning and profound investigation.

JOHN H. EATON.

Major Eaton, who was the first secretary of war under President Jackson, is chiefly remembered as the friend and biographer of that great man. He was born in Tennessee, and, like his illustrious friend, grew up with that State. On the breaking out of the war of 1812, he joined the forces for the defence of the frontier against the Indians; and, having been promoted to the rank of major, he served with distinction at the glorious defence of New Orleans. After the conclusion of the contest he returned to Tennessee, and engaged in the practice of the law. Major Eaton was one of the first to propose the name of General Jackson for the presidency. Filled with admiration of the general's character and exploits, he wrote and published a biography of him, written with care and fitted to become a standard work. Upon the accession of General Jackson, in March, 1829, Major Eaton was appointed secretary of war. For that post he was fitted by character and experience, and he filled it ably, until an unfortunate difference in regard to a domestic arrangement, caused the rupture of the cabinet in April, 1831. Major Eaton resigned his

post without giving any public reason. He still retained the friendship and confidence of President Jackson, however, and though he does not appear afterward in public life, he stood high in the esteem of his party.

LEWIS CASS.

The successor of Major Eaton as secretary of war under President Jackson was Lewis Cass, of Michigan. He was born at Exeter, New Hampshire, on the 9th of October, 1782. Having received a limited education at his native place, he set out, at the age of seventeen years, to seek a home in the West, then a wilderness. He first settled at Marietta, where he studied law and became distinguished. At the age of twenty-five, Mr. Cass was elected to the legislature of Ohio, in which body he took an active and striking part. He originated the bill which arrested the proceedings of Aaron Burr, and checked the famous conspiracy of that personage.

In 1807, Mr. Jefferson appointed Mr. Cass marshal of Ohio, and he held that office until the latter part of 1811, when he volunteered to repel Indian aggressions on the frontier. At the commencement of the war of 1812, he was elected colonel of the third regiment of Ohio volunteers, and entered the service of the United States.

Having, by a difficult march, reached Detroit, he was distinguished for energy and courage. He was the first to land in arms on the enemy's shore, and, with a small detachment of troops, fought and won the first battle, that of the Tarontee. At the subsequent capitulation of Detroit, he was absent on important service, and was greatly mortified at that disastrous event, and especially at his command and himself being included in that capitulation, which, for a time, terminated his activity. Liberated on parol, he repaired to the seat of government to report the causes of the disaster and the failure of the campaign. He was immediately appointed to a colonelcy in the regular army, and, soon after, promoted to the rank of brigadier-general—having, in the mean time, been elected major-general of the Ohio volunteers. On being exchanged and released from parol, he again repaired to the frontier, and joined the army for the recovery of Michigan. Being at that time without a command, he served and distinguished himself, as a volunteer aide-de-camp to General Harrison, at the battle of the Thames, which retrieved the previous reverses of the American arms on that frontier.

Being appointed by President Madison, in October, 1813, as governor of Michigan, yielding to the earnest and pressing solicitations of the citizens of that territory, General Cass accepted the appointment. His position combined with the ordinary duties of chief magistrate of a civilized community, the immediate management and control, as superintendent, of the relations with the numerous and powerful Indian tribes in that region of country. He conducted, with eminent success, the affairs of the territory under very embarrassing circumstances, displaying great ability and energy. Under his sway, peace was preserved between the whites and the disaffected Indians, law and order established, and the territory rapidly advanced in population, resources, and prosperity. He held this position till July, 1831, when he was, by General Jackson, made a member of cabinet, as secretary of war. His administration of the affairs of that department was able and judicious. In the latter part of 1836, General Jackson appointed him minister to France, in which position he rendered eminent and valuable services. His celebrated protest against the "Quintuple Treaty"—which, under the pretext of breaking up the slave-trade, provided for the indiscriminate right of search on the high seas—though avowedly put forth without instructions, and on his own personal responsibility, had the effect of preventing the final ratification of that treaty by France, though agreed to and signed by her executive authority. Considering himself placed in a false attitude by the arrangements made with Great Britain, respecting the suppression of the slave-trade, in the treaty of August, 1842, and that he could no longer maintain his position at the court of France with dignity and self-respect, he requested his recall, and returned to this country, where he had greatly gained in public estimation, by his manly and independent course in defeating the British diplomacy. In January, 1845, he was elected by the legislature of Michigan, to the senate of the United States, which place he resigned on his nomination, in May, 1848, as a candidate for the presidency, by the political party to which he belongs. After the election of his opponent, General Taylor, to that office, the legislature of his State, in 1849, re-elected him to the senate for the unexpired portion of his original term of six years. In this position he has greatly distinguished himself as an able debater. General Cass is still in the enjoyment of full mental and physical vigour, the result, no doubt, of industrious and extremely temperate habits.

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER.

Benjamin Franklin Butler was born in Kinderhook, Columbia county, New York, on the 14th of December, 1795. He received but a common-school education, and was then taken into the law-office of Mr. Van Buren. He was admitted to the bar in 1817, and soon afterward became the law partner of Mr. Van Buren, which connection he continued until 1822, when he was appointed district attorney of Albany county. In 1827 we find him an active and influential member of the New York assembly. In November, 1833, President Jackson appointed him attorney-general of the United States, which post he continued to hold until 1838, when he resigned, and devoted himself to the institution of a law-school in New York. This school has attained a high reputation, owing to the energy, ability and learning of Mr. Butler.

JOHN M. BERRIEN.

John Macpherson Berrien, who was for some time attorney-general under President Jackson, was born in New Jersey in August, 1781. While he was still an infant, his father removed to Georgia. He received an excellent education, and graduated at Princeton College, in 1796, when only fifteen years old. On returning to Georgia, Mr. Berrien commenced the study of the law, and he was admitted to the bar in 1799. In 1804 he was elected recorder of the city of Savannah, and in 1809, solicitor of the State for the eastern district. In 1810 he was chosen a judge of the supreme court of the State, a post which he held four years. In 1822 and '23 he was elected to the senate of his State, and in 1824 to that of the United States. In 1828 he was appointed attorney-general of the United States. Soon after retiring from that office he joined the opposition to the Jackson party. Mr. Berrien afterward served for six years in the national senate with great reputation. He now resides in the State of Georgia.

WILLIAM T. BARRY.

William Taylor Barry, who was postmaster-general under General Jackson's administration, was born in Lunenburg county, Virginia, on the 5th of February, 1785. When in his eleventh year he went to Kentucky, settling in Jessamine county. Graduating at Transylvania University, he commenced the study of law in the office of the Hon. James Brown, afterward United States minister to France, and completed his legal course at the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. He was admitted to practice at Lexington, Kentucky, in 1805, and, two years subsequently, received the appointment of attorney for the State. The same year, 1807, he was elected to the legislature, where he continued to serve during several successive sessions.

In 1810, Mr. Barry was elected to Congress. Soon after the breaking out of the second war with Great Britain, he was appointed an aide-de-camp to Governor Shelby, and he assisted at the overthrow of Tecumseh and the English in the battle of the Thames. In 1814 he was elected a United States senator from Kentucky. Resigning his seat, he was, in 1816, appointed one of the superior judges of the Kentucky courts. He was chosen lieutenant-governor of the State in 1820; and, in 1827, received the appointment of State secretary from Governor Desha. Under General Jackson's administration, he was selected to fill the station of postmaster-general. After six years of service, he resigned; and, in 1835, was despatched to Spain as American minister. On his way to Spain, he expired at Liverpool, on the 30th of August, 1833, in the fifty-first year of his age.

JOHN BRANCH.

John Branch was a distinguished partisan of General Jackson's, and promoted the election of that great man to the presidency. After being prominent in the politics of North Carolina, and in Congress, he was appointed secretary of the navy at the commencement of President Jackson's administration. He discharged the duties of that office with fidelity and satisfaction until the rupture in the cabinet in April, 1831, when he resigned, in compliance with the wishes of the president, who, however, complimented him upon his conduct in office. After this, we find no mention of Mr. Branch in public life.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

Martin Van Buren, the eighth president of the United States, was born at Kinderhook, Columbia county, New York, on the 5th of December, 1782. His parents were persons of moderate circumstances, and he received but a common-school education. In his fourteenth year, he left the academy and began the study of the law in the office of Mr. Francis Sylvester, a lawyer of Kinderhook. The quick, intelligent, and active habits of young Van Buren soon attracted attention, and gave promise of future distinction. He was a politician while yet a student. At the age of eighteen years, he represented the Republicans of Kinderhook in the congressional convention of that district. During 1802–3 he studied law in New York city, in the office of William D. Van Ness, one of the most distinguished lawyers in the United States. In November, 1803, he was admitted to the bar.

The natural ability and energy of Mr. Van Buren soon raised him to position and influence in his profession. In the mean time he continued to give an active support to the men and measures of the Democratic party. In 1808, Governor Tompkins appointed him surrogate of Columbia county. From this time his promotion in public life was rapid and remarkable. In the spring of 1812 he was elected to a seat in the State senate, and he continued an active member of that body until 1820. During a portion of this period, he also held the office of attorney-general.

Mr. Van Buren was now considered one of the leaders of the Democratic party in the State of New York. In 1821 he was chosen a member of the convention to revise the constitution of the State; and, in the same year, elected to a seat in the senate of the United States. In that body, as in all others of which he became a member,

M. Van Buren.

he was a leading and guiding spirit. In 1828, Mr. Van Buren resigned his seat in the senate, having been nominated to succeed Governor Clinton in the gubernatorial chair of New York. He was elected by a decisive majority, being supported by the friends of General Jackson in that State. He entered upon the duties of his high office in January, 1829; but his administration had scarcely developed its policy, when President Jackson offered him the post of secretary of state, which he accepted.

In the cabinet of Jackson, Mr. Van Buren soon found his position unpleasant, owing to what was supposed to be a rivalry between him and Mr. Calhoun, the vice-president. He resigned in April, 1831. President Jackson, however, showed that he retained confidence in him, by appointing him minister to England. But the senate, by the casting vote of Mr. Calhoun, rejected the nomination. The president immediately declared that the rejection had been a mere exhibition of personal spite; the administration party considered Mr. Van Buren a martyr; and, in 1832, he was nominated and elected vice-president of the United States. He filled that office with dignity and ability during General Jackson's second term. In 1836 he was nominated to succeed Jackson in the presidency, and elected by a large majority.

Mr. Van Buren was inaugurated president of the United States on the 4th of March, 1837. In his inaugural address, he assured the people that he would follow out the policy of President Jackson, and his general political course evidenced the sincerity of his professions. The cabinet was composed of the following members:—Secretary of state, John Forsyth, of Georgia; secretary of the treasury, Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire; secretary of war, Joel R. Poinsett, of South Carolina; secretary of the navy, Mahlon Dickerson, of New Jersey; attorney-general, Benjamin F. Butler; postmaster-general, Amos Kendall, of Kentucky.

Early in 1837, indications were perceived of a money pressure of unexampled severity. In May, all the banks of New York city suspended specie payments, and the banks of the other large cities followed the example. Unprecedented embarrassments ensued among the mercantile classes, and an immense number of failures occurred. The president was requested to rescind the specie circular and to call an extra session of Congress. After much delay, Mr. Van Buren consented to convene Congress on the first Monday in September. This extra session continued forty-three days, during which the administration was sustained by a majority in the house of representatives. In his message, the president recommended the adoption

of the scheme known as the "sub-treasury." This met with violent opposition. The bill establishing the sub-treasury passed the senate, but was rejected in the house.

When Congress again met in December, the sub-treasury bill was again pressed upon its attention, and again rejected. Various important acts for internal improvement were passed. During 1838, a serious rebellion against the colonial government occurred in Canada, and many of the citizens of the United States prepared to join the insurgents. The president issued a proclamation, warning all persons from engaging in any enterprise which would violate the neutral laws of the United States. General Scott was ordered to the frontier, with a portion of the New York troops. But in the mean time, an affair occurred, which caused much ill feeling for a time in the States. A party of the patriots had made a rendezvous on Navy Island, in the Niagara river, opposite to which, on the American side, was the small village of Fort Schlosser. On the night of the 28th of December, a small steamboat called the Caroline was moored there; and Colonel McNabb, commander of the Canadian militia, suspecting her of carrying ammunition and supplies to the patriots, resolved to destroy her. This he effected, setting the boat on fire, and sending it down the Falls of Niagara. Several persons were killed in the preceding affray. This circumstance caused an angry correspondence between the secretary of state and Mr. Fox, the British minister. After a long debate, a bill for the preservation of neutrality was passed by Congress, and the matter dropped.

But few acts of general interest were passed during the third session of the twenty-fifth Congress. The most important were those relating to the Seminole difficulties in Florida. The desultory contest with these Indians was continued during several years, and large sums were expended in maintaining it. Able generals were baffled, and many lives sacrificed in the harassing and exhausting service which the army had to perform.

Generals Gaines, Scott, and Jessup were in turn intrusted with the conduct of the war, but none of them succeeded in bringing the enemy to a decisive engagement. The last-named commander resorted to a stratagem to gain possession of the master-spirit among the Seminoles.

Osceola was known to be a brave and sagacious warrior, and was at this time the principal chief. He was viewed as the great director of all the hostile bands of Seminole warriors. It was deemed, therefore, a great achievement by the American general to get him into his power. General Jessup found means to communicate to the In-

dians that it was his wish to have the chiefs come in and hold a talk, in order to come to some agreement. White flags were displayed on the fort. On the 20th of October, 1837, Osceola, accompanied by other chiefs and a few warriors, came in agreeably to the invitation; he carrying a white flag in his hand, and, relying on the honour of the commanding general, put himself in his power; but instead of being received as was expected, they were immediately surrounded by bayonets, made prisoners, and confined in the fort. Whether General Jessup was alone accountable for this act of treachery, or whether he acted under orders from the president is not known; but the government having afterward approved of the measure, it became a national act.

Osceola was kept there a prisoner for some time, when he was, by order of the government, conveyed under a strong guard to Sullivan Island, in the harbour of Charleston, South Carolina, and confined in the fort. His proud and independent spirit could not bear the confinement, and he gradually pined away and died in prison. Thus fell another brave Indian chieftain, not in fair fight, but in a manner that will ever be a stigma upon our national honour.

Other chiefs were kidnapped in the same treacherous manner; but severe as the loss must have been to the Indians, it did not appear to discourage them. The war was still carried on by those who were left in a desultory manner. The ranks of the Indians are said to have been filled up by runaway slaves and some of the Creek Indians who had not yet quitted Georgia.

On the 24th of December, 1837, Colonel Taylor succeeded in bringing the Indians to a general engagement at Okeechobee. The action was a severe one, and continued from half-past twelve until after three P. M., a part of the time very close and severe. The troops suffered much, having twenty-six killed and one hundred and twelve wounded, among whom were some of the most valuable officers. The enemy probably suffered equally, they having left ten dead on the ground, besides, doubtless, carrying off many more, as is customary with them when practicable.

Taylor's column, in six weeks, penetrated one hundred and fifty miles into the enemy's country, opened roads, and constructed bridges and causeways when necessary, on the greater portion of the route, established two depots, and the necessary defences for the same, and finally overtook and beat the enemy in his strongest position. The results of which movement and battle were the capture of thirty of the enemy, the coming in, and surrendering of more than one hundred and fifty Indians and negroes, mostly the former, including the chiefs

Ou-la-too-chee, Tus-ta-nug-gee, and other principal men, the capturing and driving out of the country six hundred head of cattle, and upward of one hundred head of horses, besides obtaining a thorough knowledge of the country through which the troops operated, a greater portion of which was entirely unknown, except to the enemy.

Colonel Taylor's conduct in the battle of Okeechobee was duly appreciated by the government. The secretary of war, Mr. Poinsett, gave him the warmest commendation in his report to Congress; and he was immediately promoted to the brevet rank of Brigadier-general, with the chief command in Florida. His head-quarters were in the neighbourhood of Tampa Bay. From this point, he directed the "war of movements," so difficult and discouraging to an ardent officer, until 1840, when he was relieved by General Armistead, who was ordered to take the command in Florida.

The Seminoles had eluded pursuit for a long time previous to May, 1841, when the conduct of the war was intrusted to Colonel Worth. Sickness among the men impeded his operations, but he was soon able to compel the surrender of several considerable detachments of hostile Indians; and, on the 19th of April, 1842, he succeeded in compelling a large body of Indians to fight at a place called Palaklaklaha. The result, as might have been anticipated, was a complete defeat of the enemy, which was soon after followed by the surrender of one of the leading chiefs of the Indians with his band.

When the twenty-sixth Congress met, it was ascertained that the political parties were nearly balanced in the house. R. M. T. Hunter, a conservative opposition member, was elected speaker. On the 4th of December, 1839, a national convention of the Whig party was held at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. General William H. Harrison, of Ohio, was nominated for the presidency, and John Tyler, of Virginia, for the vice-presidency. The administration party renominated Mr. Van Buren and Richard M. Johnson. The election resulted in the choice of Harrison and Tyler by a very large majority.

In July, 1840, the sub-treasury bill passed Congress, after much debate. A uniform bankrupt law was discussed, but not definitely acted upon. During the latter part of the administration, a number of changes were made in the cabinet, viz.:—James K. Paulding, of New York, was appointed secretary of the navy, in place of Mahlon Dickerson, resigned; Felix Grundy, of Tennessee, attorney-general; in place of Benjamin F. Butler, resigned; and then, Henry D. Gilpin, of Pennsylvania, in place of Mr. Grundy, resigned. Amos Kendall, the postmaster-general, was succeeded by John M. Niles, of Connecticut. The latter officer was now admitted to cabinet councils.

The public expenditure during this administration greatly exceeded that of any preceding four years since the war with Great Britain, exclusive of the public debt and the Florida war. The friends of Mr. Van Buren contend, however, that the administration was entirely successful, and say that it was a fit sequel to that of General Jackson, completing the divorce of bank and state.

In 1844, when the national Democratic convention assembled at Baltimore, Mr. Van Buren was a prominent candidate for the party nomination for the presidency; but, as he had declared himself opposed to the annexation of Texas, the convention, of which a majority favoured that measure, nominated James K. Polk of Tennessee. Mr. Van Buren gave the nominees of the convention a cordial support, and greatly contributed to their election.

In 1848, Mr. Van Buren was again nominated for the presidency by a Northern "free-soil" party, opposed to the extension of slavery. Charles Francis Adams, of Massachusetts, was nominated on the same ticket for the vice-presidency. These candidates did not secure the electoral vote of a single State, but they aided in defeating the regular Democratic candidates, Generals Cass and Butler. Since that period, Mr. Van Buren has remained in private life, enjoying the comforts secured by an ample fortune and a large circle of admiring friends.

In person, Mr. Van Buren is of the middle height, and rather robust. His head is finely developed, and his countenance is expressive of quickness of apprehension as well as cheerfulness of temper. His manners are cordial, and he has the reputation of being a very entertaining companion. He is no orator, although a formidable debater. His state papers prove that he wields a powerful pen.

RICHARD M. JOHNSON.

Colonel Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, was vice-president of the United States during the administration of Mr. Van Buren. He was born in Kentucky, in the autumn of 1781. The literary institutions of Kentucky were then in their infancy, and the facilities for thorough education exceedingly limited. Richard remained with his father until the age of fifteen, receiving only such instruction as the nature of circumstances would allow. At this age he left his father's house, intent upon advantages superior to those afforded in

that vicinity, and entered a country school, where he acquired a knowledge of grammar, and the rudiments of the Latin language. Afterward he entered Transylvania University, where, by unremitted industry, he made rapid progress in the acquisition of classic and scientific knowledge.

Upon quitting the university, he entered upon the study of the law, under the guidance and instruction of that celebrated jurist and statesman, Colonel George Nicholas. On the decease of this gentleman, which took place a few weeks after his young student had entered his office, the subject of this biography placed himself under the instruction of the Hon. James Brown, a senator in Congress from Louisiana, and subsequently a minister from the United States to the court of France, but then a distinguished member of the Kentucky bar. With this eminent citizen he finished his preparatory studies, and at the early age of nineteen entered upon the arduous duties of his profession. In his vocation as a lawyer, he was eminently successful.

Scarcely had he been fairly installed in the duties of his profession, before an opportunity was afforded for the development of that high and chivalrous patriotism which has since identified him with some of the noblest feats of American valour. In 1802, the port of New Orleans, in violation of an existing treaty, was closed against the United States by the Spanish intendant. The occurrence gave rise to immense excitement throughout America, especially in the valley of the Ohio and Mississippi, and a rupture between Spain and the United States, likely to end in war, was the consequence. Richard M. Johnson, then only in his twentieth year, with many other young men of his neighbourhood, promptly volunteered his services to pass down the Western waters and make a descent on New Orleans, in the event of war. In a few days, chiefly through his exertions, a large company was enrolled, and he was chosen to the command. The speedy adjustment of the dispute with Spain deprived him and the brave youths under his command of the opportunity of signalizing themselves and the State upon the field of battle.

Before he had attained the age of twenty-one, at which period the constitution of Kentucky fixes the eligibility of the citizen to a seat in the legislature, the citizens of Scott county elected him, by acclamation, to a seat in that body. As a member of the legislature, he acquitted himself with great credit, and to the entire satisfaction of his constituents. Having served two years in that station, at the age of twenty-four he was elected a representative in the Congress of the United States, and, in October, 1807, being then just twenty-

five, took his seat in that body. He entered upon the theatre of national politics, at a period when party excitement ran high, and attached himself to the republican party, more from a uniform and fixed devotion to the principles of democracy, than from any purely selfish policy. He was immediately placed upon some of the most important committees, and, at the second session of the term for which he was elected, was appointed chairman of the committee of claims, at that time among the most important of the house committees. His zealous and faithful devotion to business, and the distinction which he had acquired in Congress and throughout the Union, as a genuine friend of the liberty and happiness of his country, increased his popularity at home, and insured his re-election by his constituents.

In 1811, our relations with Great Britain were such as, in the opinion of many, to render an appeal to arms inevitable. Richard M. Johnson was among those who were convinced that no other alternative remained to the people of the United States; and accordingly, after supporting, with great energy, all the preparatory measures which the crisis demanded, in June, 1812, gave his vote for the declaration of war. This important measure was shortly afterward followed by an adjournment of Congress, when he hastened home, raised the standard of his country, and called around him many of the best citizens of his neighbourhood, some of whom, schooled in the stormy period of the early settlement of the State, were veteran warriors, well suited for the service for which they were intended. With this battalion, composed of three companies, he hastened to the frontier, and when arrived at St. Mary's, on the 13th of September, his force, by general order, was augmented by a battalion of mounted volunteers, and he elected to the command of the regiment thus formed. A portion of the regiment only, during that season, had any opportunity of an engagement; and this was a party of the mounted battalion, under Major Suggett, which, in communicating with Fort Wayne, besieged by a superior force, encountered an equal number of the enemy, whom it routed, killing an Indian chief of some distinction. After an active campaign of about ten months, Colonel Johnson returned home for the purpose of proceeding to Washington to re-enter Congress, having added to his reputation as a statesman, that of an energetic and patriotic soldier.

In the winter following while in attendance upon Congress, he rendered material aid to the president, in arranging the plan of campaign for the ensuing summer, and his views being adopted, were subsequently carried out, and contributed essentially to the successes which followed upon the frontier. Colonel Johnson was authorized

by the secretary of war to raise, organize, and hold in readiness, a regiment of mounted volunteers, to consist of one thousand men. Accordingly, upon the adjournment of Congress in March, he hastened home, and in a few weeks secured from among the most respectable and patriotic citizens of the State the full complement of volunteers, to the organization and discipline of whom he gave his most sedulous attention. In this important part of his military duty, he had the valuable aid of his skilful and intrepid brother, Lieutenant-colonel James Johnson, whose military talents, decision, and courage in the hour of battle, entitled him to a full share of the glory acquired by the regiment. Colonel Johnson, with his accustomed energy, lost no time in repairing with his command to the frontier of Ohio, then the theatre of operations. His regiment soon acquired a name that attracted the admiration of the country. Never did soldiers perform their arduous duties with more alacrity and cheerfulness, nor were the services of any more useful and extensive.

In October, 1813, the decisive crisis in the operations of the Northwestern army arrived—the battle of the Thames, which led to a termination of hostilities in that quarter, was fought and won. The distinguished services of Colonel Johnson, and his brave regiment, in that sanguinary engagement, have scarcely a parallel in the heroic annals of our country. The British and Indians, the former under the command of General Proctor, and the latter under that of Tecumseh, the celebrated Indian warrior, had taken an advantageous position, the British in line between the river Thames and a narrow swamp, and the Indians in ambush on their right, and west of the swamp, ready to fall upon the rear of Colonel Johnson, should he force a retreat of the British. Colonel Johnson, under the orders of the commander-in-chief, divided his regiment into two battalions, one under the command of his gallant brother James, and the other to be led by himself. Colonel Johnson with his battalion passed the swamp and attacked the Indians, at the same moment that his brother James fell upon and routed the British regulars. The contest for a while between Colonel Johnson's battalion and the Indians was obstinate and bloody, the slaughter great, but success complete. The gallant colonel was in the very midst and thickest of the fight, inspiring by his presence and courage the utmost confidence of his brave followers, and though perforated with balls, his bridle-arm shattered, and bleeding profusely, he continued to fight until he encountered and slew an Indian chief who formed the rallying-point of the savages. This chief was supposed to be the famous Tecumseh himself, upon whose fall the Indians raised a yell and retreated. The heroic colonel,

covered with wounds, twenty-five balls having been shot into him, his clothes, and his horse, was borne from the battle ground, faint from exertion and loss of blood, and almost lifeless. Never was victory so complete or its achievement so glorious. Fifteen hundred Indians were engaged against the battalion of Colonel Johnson, and eight hundred British regulars against that of his brother. Both forces were completely routed, and an effectual end put to the war upon the Northern frontier, distinguished as it had been by so many murderous cruelties upon the part of the savage allies of the British.

The war in that quarter being now ended, in a short time the army took up its march homeward; but Colonel Johnson, being unable to continue with his regiment, was carried to Detroit, from whence, after a short confinement, he departed for home. After a distressing journey, during which he endured the most painful suffering, he reached his home in Kentucky early in November. In February, 1814, still unable to walk, he reached Washington City, and resumed his seat in Congress. Everywhere upon the route, and at the metropolis, he was met with the most enthusiastic and cordial greetings of a grateful people. Even his political opponents, deeply sensible of his sincerity, his patriotism, and his valour, cordially united in doing honour to the man who had at so much sacrifice rendered such glorious service to the country. Congress, by joint resolution, made appropriate acknowledgment of his gallant deeds, and directed him to be presented with a suitable testimonial of his services.

He continued to serve his constituents in Congress until the year 1819, when he voluntarily retired, carrying with him the esteem of the whole nation. But his native State, of which he was justly the idol, would not suffer him to remain in retirement. The people of Scott county immediately returned him to the State legislature, and that body elected him to the United States senate—an honour he could not resist; and accordingly in December, 1819, he took his seat in the United States senate, and after serving his term, was unanimously re-elected, a circumstance which serves to show how well he preserved the confidence of the people of his native State, and how deeply he was enshrined in their affections.

His career as a legislator was scarcely less brilliant and useful, than that in which he distinguished himself as a warrior. His speeches and reports indicate liberality as a statesman. The whole nation will bear evidence to his zeal and industry in support of all measures calculated to promote the end of government—the happiness of the people. No man laboured more indefatigably in behalf of private claimants than did Colonel Johnson; and so scru-

pulously faithful was he in the discharge of his duty toward all who applied for his services, that he never failed while in Congress to attend to a single application that was made to him. The old soldiers of the Revolution, the invalids of the last war, and thousands of other persons, all over the Union, who had claims to urge upon the government, had no truer or surer friend in Congress than Colonel Johnson, as many of them, now enjoying the bounty of the government through his instrumentality, can bear most grateful testimony.

In 1836 he was made vice-president of the United States, and presided over the senate with great dignity for the term of four years, at the expiration of which he retired to his farm in Scott county, Kentucky.

He now devoted himself to repairing a private fortune much injured by a too liberal hospitality. His pursuits were only interrupted by a service of one term in the legislature. Colonel Johnson died in 1845, at the age of sixty-four years.

JOEL R. POINSETT.

The secretary of war during Mr. Van Buren's administration was Joel R. Poinsett, of South Carolina. He was born in that State, in 1779: of delicate health in youth, and the sole survivor of a large family, he went abroad for his health, and passed his early life in England and on the continent. He travelled extensively in Europe, and penetrated far into the interior of Asia. He passed a portion of his life in the Spanish-American States, and with Clay and Webster espoused their cause and that of Greece in the house of representatives, where he served from 1821 to 1825. In 1825 he was appointed by President Adams, though of different politics, minister to Mexico. His return was in the midst of the nullification excitement, in which he was a devoted and active Union man. He was secretary of war during Mr. Van Buren's administration. From 1840 he continued in retirement, occasionally, however, writing upon the topics of the day. He censured the war with Mexico, though declared by the politicians with whom he had always acted. His latest labours were devoted to the preservation of the Union, and to

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* Collins's Kentucky.

save from the defilement of secession or revolution the honour of his native State.

This distinguished statesman and friend of the Union died at Statesburg, South Carolina, on the 14th of December, 1851, at the age of seventy-two years.

JAMES KIRKE PAULDING.

James K. Paulding is a distinguished name in both literature and politics. He was born on the 22d of August, 1779, at Pleasant Valley, Dutchess county, New York. On the conclusion of the Revolutionary war, the family returned to their former residence in the county of Westchester, whence they had been driven by that event, and where he received his education at a country school. At early manhood he took up his abode at the city of New York, where he resided with occasional intervals until some eight years past, when he retired to a country-seat on the banks of the Hudson, in his native county. Having been previously acquainted with Washington Irving, in consequence of a family alliance, an intimacy took place which resulted in the publication of a periodical called "Salmagundi," the principal object of which was to satirize the follies and foibles of fashionable life. This youthful production became very popular, obtained a wide circulation, and awakened a spirit of emulation throughout the whole country. It would have been continued indefinitely, had it not been brought to an abrupt conclusion by the refusal of the publisher to allow the authors any compensation. The success of this work probably decided the future course of the authors, who, however, in future pursued their avocations separately.

In 1813, Mr. Paulding published "The Diverting History of John Bull and Brother Jonathan," the most popular of all his satires. The next year a poetical work called "The Lay of the Scottish Fiddle," which was shortly followed by a prose pamphlet, entitled "The United States and England," which was called forth by a criticism in the "London Quarterly," on "Inchiguin's Letters," written by Mr. Charles J. Ingersoll, of Philadelphia. Having passed part of the summer of 1815 in a tour through Virginia, he wrote his "Letters from the South," containing interesting sketches of scenery, manners, and personal character. In 1818 he published a poem called the "Backwoodsman," sketching the progress of an emigrant and

his family from the old to the new States; in 1819, a second series of "Salmagundi;" in 1823, "Konigsmarke," a novel founded on the history of the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, the title of which he changed in a subsequent edition, to that of "Old Times in the New World;" in 1824, "John Bull in America, or the New Munchausen;" and, in 1826, "Merry Tales of the Three Wise Men of Gotham," a satire levelled principally at Mr. Owen's system of socialism, the science of craniology, and the great legal maxim of *caveat empter*. After this appeared "The Traveller's Guide," or "The New Pilgrim's Progress," as he afterward called it, finding it was mistaken for a real itineracy; "Tales of the Good Woman, by a Doubtful Gentleman," and "The Dutchman's Fireside," which has ever been regarded as the best of his novels. It is a domestic story of the old French war. This was followed by "Westward Ho!" a novel of forest life and Kentucky characters. In 1835 he published "A Life of Washington," for the use of schools. More recently, "Slavery in the United States," and two novels, one called "The Old Continental," the other, "The Puritan and his Daughter," which is his latest production. At the close of the war of 1814, he resided some time at Washington as secretary to the board of navy commissioners, and was subsequently many years navy agent at New York. From 1837 to 1841 he was at the head of the navy department of the United States under the Van Buren administration, since which he has retired from public life.*

MAHLON DICKERSON.

Mr. Dickerson was born in Morris county, New Jersey, in 1780. He received a liberal education, graduated at Princeton College, and then studied law. After being admitted to the bar in 1793, he removed to Philadelphia where he soon rose to distinction as a lawyer and politician. In 1810 he again returned to New Jersey. After serving in the legislature, he was in 1815 chosen governor of the State. In 1817 he was elected to the United States senate, where he served sixteen successive years. In 1834 he was appointed secretary of the navy. Mr. Dickerson died in 1851, at the age of eighty-one years.

* Men of the Time.

FELIX GRUNDY.

Felix Grundy, who succeeded Benjamin F. Butler as attorney-general, was one of the most distinguished statesmen of the West. He was born September 11, 1777, in Berkeley county, Virginia. His father, who was a native of England, emigrated to Virginia at an early period of his life, whence he removed with his family, first, in 1779, to the neighbourhood of Brownsville, in Pennsylvania, and then, in the following year, to Kentucky. The childhood of the son was thus surrounded by scenes of savage warfare and devastation. The dangers which he incurred may be judged of from the fact that three of his brothers, older than himself, fell under the tomahawk and scalping-knife of the Indians.

Mr. Grundy was educated in the academy at Bardstown in Kentucky, which had been recently established in that place by Dr. James Priestley, who was subsequently president of the Nashville University, in the adjacent State of Tennessee. After distinguishing himself among his fellow-students, he prosecuted the study of the law, under the direction of Mr. George Nicholas, the leader at the time of the Kentucky bar. In the practice of his profession he was very successful—in a short time acquiring an extensive reputation as an advocate, especially in criminal cases.

Mr. Grundy, in 1799, when only twenty-two years of age, was elected a member of the convention which was then convened to revise the constitution of the state. He took a conspicuous part in the discussions of this body, and urged upon it with great ability, but without attaining his object, an alteration, by a constitutional provision, of the existing system of judicature. He was a member of the Kentucky legislature from 1799 till the autumn of the year 1806, when he was appointed to be one of the judges of the supreme court of errors and appeals. During his legislative career, he succeeded in obtaining the change in the organization of the courts in despite of the resistance to its introduction made by most of the older members of the bar.

Shortly after Mr. Grundy's appointment to a seat on the bench of the supreme court, he was promoted to be the chief-justice of the State of Kentucky; which office he administered with great ability, impartiality, and diligence. Finding, however, the salary annexed to it wholly inadequate to meet the expenses of his family, he re-

signed it, and removed to Nashville, resuming there the practice of his profession. His success was now even greater than it had been in Kentucky, and his reputation as an advocate in the defence of persons charged with criminal offences became so extensive, that he was repeatedly sent for on this account from several of the neighbouring States.

Mr. Grundy was elected a representative in Congress from Tennessee in 1811, and was one of the most prominent and efficient supporters of the administration of the General Government, in the measures adopted by it immediately before, and during the war of 1812 with Great Britain. He had been re-elected in 1813, but declined another re-election in 1815. From this period, until 1819, he devoted himself exclusively to his professional avocations. In the last-mentioned year, he became a member of the legislature of his State, and continued such for six years.

In 1829, Mr. Grundy was elected one of the senators in Congress from the State of Tennessee, and was re-elected as such in 1833. He was one of the most zealous supporters in the senate of the measures adopted by President Jackson; and was appointed by Mr. Van Buren to the office of attorney-general of the United States. But this he did not long continue to hold, resigning it to resume his seat in the United States senate. He died on the 19th day of December, 1840.

The character of Mr. Grundy was estimable in every respect. His mind was comprehensive and penetrating, and his eloquence copious and striking.

HENRY D. GILPIN.

Henry D. Gilpin was born in Philadelphia in 1801. Having received a careful elementary education, he entered the University of Pennsylvania when but fifteen years old, and graduated with high honours in 1819. He then studied law under Mr. Joseph R. Ingersoll, and in 1822 was admitted to the bar. From this time he was very active both as a lawyer and a politician. After having held several offices of trust, and discharged their duties with general satisfaction, he was appointed attorney-general of the United States by Mr. Van Buren, and served in that honourable capacity until the close of Mr. Van Buren's administration. Since that time, Mr. Gilpin has devoted his attention entirely to the profession of which he is an ornament.

AMOS KENDALL.

Amos Kendall succeeded Mr. Barry as postmaster-general. He was born in New England, and, when a young man, went to Kentucky, where he taught school. He was also employed for some time as a private tutor in the family of Henry Clay. He then became an active politician, and was a warm supporter of General Jackson for the presidency, employing his pen with great effect at Washington. He was appointed postmaster-general by President Jackson in 1835, and continued in that office under Mr. Van Buren until May 25, 1840. After retiring from office, he returned to his home in the West, and became largely interested in the magnetic telegraph lines.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

William Henry Harrison, ninth president of the United States, was born at Berkeley, on the James River, twenty-five miles from Richmond, Virginia, in 1773. He was the youngest of three sons of Benjamin Harrison, a descendant of the celebrated leader of the same name in the wars of Cromwell. Benjamin Harrison occupied a conspicuous part in our own Revolutionary struggle, and was one of the most active of that daring band who set the ball in motion. He represented Virginia in Congress, in 1774, '75, and '76. He was chairman of the committee of the whole house when the declaration of independence was agreed to, and was one of its signers. He was elected governor of Virginia, and was one of the most popular officers that ever filled the executive chair. He died in 1791.

William Henry Harrison was early placed at Hampden Sydney College, which he left at seventeen years of age, his mind well imbued with classical literature, and deeply impressed with admiration of the principles of republican Greece and Rome. In obedience to the wishes of his father, whose hospitable and liberal conduct through life prevented him from promising wealth to his son, he entered on the study of medicine; and after a short preparatory course, he repaired, in the spring of 1791, to Philadelphia, to prosecute his studies with greater advantage. The death of his father immediately after his arrival, checked his professional aspirations; and the "note of preparation" which was sounding through the country, for a campaign against the Indians of the West, decided his destiny. He resolved to enter into the service of his government, and to create a name for himself worthy of his father. His guardian, the celebrated Robert Morris, opposed his wishes with all the eloquence of his great mind; but it was in vain that he placed the enterprise before the

W. H. Harrison.

enthusiastic youth in all its hardships and privations. In order to deter him from his project, he painted an Indian war in a remote and untried wilderness in the darkest colours; he spoke of victory, against such foes, as not involving glory; but of defeat, as insuring disgrace. The remonstrances of his friend and guardian were fruitless, and General Washington at length yielded to the importunities of the youth; he presented him with an ensign's commission. With characteristic ardour he departed for Fort Washington, now Cincinnati; where, however, he arrived too late to participate in the unfortunate campaign. The fatal 4th of November had passed, and he was only in time to learn the earliest intelligence of the death of Butler, and of Oldham, and of the unparalleled massacre of the army of St. Clair.

The return of the broken troops had no effect in damping the zeal of young Harrison. He devoted himself ardently to the study of the theory of the higher tactics; his education gave him advantages possessed by few young soldiers of that day; and when, in the succeeding year, the gallant Wayne assumed the command, Ensign Harrison was immediately noticed by this experienced commander, and selected by him for one of his aids. The judicious movements of the new army, and the success which crowned the campaign under Wayne, are a brilliant portion of our history. Harrison distinguished himself handsomely in Wayne's victory, and his chief did him the justice to name him specially in the official report of the engagement.

After the treaty of Greenville, 1795, Captain Harrison was left in command of Fort Washington; and shortly after the departure of General Wayne for the Atlantic States, he married the daughter of Judge Symmes, the proprietor of the Miami purchase. The writer of this brief sketch cannot let the opportunity slip, without offering a passing tribute to the virtues of this estimable woman. She is distinguished for her benevolence and her piety; all who knew her, view her with esteem and affection; and her whole course through life, in all its relations, has been characterized by those qualifications that complete the character of an accomplished matron.

The idleness and dissipation of a garrison life comported neither with the taste nor active temper of Captain Harrison. He resigned his commission, and commenced his civil career, at the age of twenty-four years, as secretary of the North-western Territory. His capacity was soon noticed by the leaders in the new territory, and he was elected, in 1799, the first delegate in Congress for that extensive region, now comprising the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan. The first and general object of his attention as a repre-

sentative was an alteration of the land system of the territory. The law, as it then existed, ordained that not less than four thousand acres (except in particular cases of fractions on the banks of rivers) could be sold at once. The operation of such an ordinance must have been fatal to that class of population whose industry and labour have since caused the country to advance with such rapid strides to wealth and greatness; it was alone calculated to benefit the speculator and rich monopolist. He was appointed chairman of the committee on lands, (the only instance, it is believed, in the history of our legislation, in which a delegate was so distinguished,) and with the aid of the able men who co-operated with him, he presented the celebrated land report, based on his own previous motion. A bill was framed, and after undergoing some amendments in the senate, was passed into a law, by which one-half of the public lands were divided into sections of six hundred and forty acres, and the other into half sections of three hundred and twenty acres. The old system of forfeiture for non-payment was abolished, and payment ordered to be made, one-fourth in hand, and the balance at the end of two, three, and four years, allowing still one year, after the expiration of the fourth year, to enable the purchaser to extricate himself, if necessary. This was a point gained, although it was not all the delegate contended for. To this measure is to be imputed the rapid settlement of the country; and if Mr. Harrison had then been called from this world, without rendering any other service to his country, he would richly have merited the title of benefactor of the territory north-west of the Ohio.

The reputation acquired by the young delegate from his legislative success, created a party in his favour, who intimated a desire that he should supersede the venerable governor of the territory. But Mr. Harrison checked the development of this feeling as soon as it was made known to him. He cherished too high a veneration for the pure and patriotic St. Clair; he had too just an estimate of the splendid talents of the governor, and too much sympathy for the war-worn, though sometimes unfortunate hero, to sanction an attempt, which, whether successful or not, would have inflicted one more pang in the bosom of the veteran. A soldier can best feel for a soldier; he declined the interference of his friends, and the subject was dropped. But when, shortly after, Indiana was erected into a separate territory, he was appointed by Mr. Adams the first governor. Previously, however, to quitting Congress, he was present at the discussion of the bill for the settlement of Judge Symmes' purchase; and although this gentleman was his father-in-law, he took an active

part in favour of those individuals who had purchased from him before he had obtained his patent. It was viewed as a matter of doubt, whether those who had sued the judge in the courts of common law, would be entitled to the remedy in equity against him. He went before the committee in person, and urged them to insert a provision in their favour. Nor did he desist until assured by the attorney-general and Mr. Harper that these persons came fully under the provisions of the act as it then stood. This was the impulse of stern duty; for at the moment he was thus engaged, he considered himself as jeoparding a large pecuniary interest of his father-in-law.

In 1801, Governor Harrison entered upon the duties of his new office, at the old military post of Vincennes. The powers with which he was vested by law have never, since the organization of our government, been conferred upon any other officer, civil or military; and the arduous character of the duties he had to perform can only be appreciated by those who are acquainted with the savage and cunning temper of the North-western Indians, with the genius of the early pioneers, and the nature of a frontier settlement. The dangers of such actions as the battle of Tippecanoe, the defence of Fort Meigs, and the battle of the Thames, are appreciated and felt by all; and the victories which were consequent upon them have crowned the victors with a never-fading wreath: but these acts, brilliant as they were, fade when put in comparison with the unremitting labour and exposure to which, for many years after the organization of the first grade of territorial government, the new executive was exposed. The whole territory consisted of three settlements, so widely separated that it was impossible for them to contribute to their mutual defence or encouragement. The first was Clarke's grant at the falls of Ohio; the second, the old French establishment at Vincennes; and the third extended from Kaskaskia to Kahokia, on the Mississippi; the whole comprising a population of about five thousand souls. The territory thus defenceless, presented a frontier, assailable almost at every point, on the north-east, north, and north-west boundaries. Numerous tribes of warlike Indians were thickly scattered throughout the northern portion of the territory, and far beyond its limits, whose hostile feelings were constantly inflamed by the intrigues of British agents and traders, if not by the immediate influence of the English government, and not unfrequently by the uncontrollable outrages of the American hunters themselves; a circumstance which it always has been found impossible to prevent, in the early settlement of the West. Governor

Harrison applied himself with characteristic energy and skill. It seems truly miraculous to us, when we look back into the early history of his government, that he should have been able to keep down Indian invasion in the infant state of the territory, seeing the great capacity the savages displayed for harassing him at a period when his resources and means had so much increased. The fact proclaims loudly the talents of the chief. Justice tempered by mildness; conciliation and firmness, accompanied by a never-slumbering watchfulness, were the means he used. These enabled him to surmount difficulties, under which an ordinary capacity must have been prostrated. The voluminous correspondence of Governor Harrison with Mr. Jefferson, from 1802 till 1809, is a recorded testimony of the ability and success of his administration.

During the year 1811, the intrigues of British agents operating on the passions of the Indians, brought affairs to a crisis which rendered hostilities unavoidable. Tecumseh, and his prophet brother, had been labouring unceasingly, since 1805, to bring about this result. Harrison called upon Colonel Boyd, of the fourth United States regiment, then at Pittsburg, (who immediately joined him,) and embodied a militia force as strong as the emergency would permit. To these were added a small but gallant band of chivalrous volunteers from Kentucky, consisting of about sixty-five individuals. With these he commenced his march toward the prophet's town at Tippecanoe. On the 6th of November he arrived in sight of the Indian village, and, in obedience to his orders, made several fruitless attempts to negotiate with the savages. Finding it impossible to bring them to any discussion, he resolved to encamp for the night, under a promise from the chiefs to hold a conference next day. He sent forward Brigade-major Clarke and Major Waller Taylor, to select a proper position for the encampment. These officers shortly after returned, and reported that they had found a situation well calculated for the purpose, and, on examination, the commander approved of it. Subsequent examination has proved that the ground was admirably adapted to baffle the success of a sudden attack, the only kind which the great experience of Harrison assured him would be attempted. The men reposed upon the spot which each, individually, should occupy, in case of attack. The event justified the anticipations of the chief. On the morning of the 7th, before daylight, the onset was made with the usual yells and impetuosity. But the army was ready; Harrison had risen some time before, and had roused the officers near him. Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the action; the arrangement of the troops was masterly, and spoke the

well-educated and experienced soldier. The Indians fought with their usual desperation, and maintained their ground for some time with extraordinary courage. Victory declared in favour of discipline, at the expense, however, of some of the most gallant spirits of the age. Among the slain were Colonels Daveiss and Owen, of Kentucky, and Captain Spencer, of Indiana. Governor Harrison received a bullet through his stock, without touching his neck. The legislature of Kentucky, at its next session, while in mourning for her gallant dead, passed the following resolution, viz. :—

"*Resolved*, That Governor William H. Harrison has behaved like a hero, a patriot and general; and that for his cool, deliberate, skilful and gallant conduct, in the battle of Tippecanoe, he well deserves the thanks of the nation."

From this period, until after the declaration of war against England, Governor Harrison was unremittingly engaged in negotiating with the Indians, and preparing to resist a more extended attack from them. In August, 1812, he received the brevet of major-general in the Kentucky militia, to enable him to command the forces marching to relieve Detroit. He immediately applied himself to the proper organization of his army on the North-western frontier. The surrender of Hull changed the face of affairs; he was appointed a major-general in the army of the United States, and his duties embraced a larger sphere. Every thing was in confusion, and every thing was to be done; money, arms, and men were to be raised. It is under circumstances like these that the talents of a great general are developed more powerfully than in conducting a battle. To do justice to this part of the biography of Harrison, requires a volume of itself. Becoming stronger from reverses, collecting munitions of war, and defending Fort Meigs, were the prominent features of his operations, until we find him in pursuit of Proctor, on the Canadian shore. On the 5th of October, 1813, he brought the British army and their Indian allies, under Proctor and Tecumseh, to action near the River Thames. The victory achieved by militia over the disciplined troops of England, on this brilliant day, was decisive; and, like the battle of the Cowpens, in the war of the Revolution, spread joy and animation over the whole Union. For this important action, Congress presented General Harrison with a gold medal. The success of the day is mainly attributable to the novel expedient of charging through the British lines with mounted infantry. The glory of originating this manœuvre belongs exclusively to General Harrison.

The North-western frontier being relieved, and important aid given

to that of Niagara, General Harrison left his troops at Sackett's Harbour, under the command of Colonel Smith, and departed for Washington by the way of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. On the whole route he was received with enthusiasm, and honoured with the highest marks of distinction that can be offered to a citizen by a republican people.

Owing to a misunderstanding between Mr. Secretary Armstrong and himself, General Harrison resigned his commission in the spring of 1814. Mr. Madison sincerely deplored this step, and assured Governor Shelby, in a letter written immediately after the resignation, "that it would not have been accepted had he been in Washington." It was received and accepted by Secretary Armstrong, while the president was absent at the Springs.

General Harrison retired to his farm at North Bend, in Ohio, from which he was successively called by the people to represent them in the Congress of the United States, and in the legislature of the State. In 1824–5 he was elected to the senate of the United States; and in 1828 he was appointed minister to Colombia, which station he held until he was recalled by President Jackson, not for any alledged fault, but in consequence of some difference of views on the Panama question. General Harrison again returned to the pursuits of agriculture at North Bend. In 1834, on the almost unanimous petition of the citizens of the county, he was appointed prothonotary of the court of Hamilton county.

In 1840, General Harrison was called by the people of the United States to preside over the country as its chief-magistrate. His election was a triumphant one; of two hundred and ninety-four electoral votes for president, he received two hundred and thirty-four. From the time when he was first nominated for the office until his death, he had been rising in public esteem and confidence; he entered upon the duties of his office with an uncommon degree of popularity, and a high expectation was cherished that his administration would be honourable to himself and advantageous to the country. His death, which took place April 4th, 1841, just a month after his inauguration, caused a deep sensation throughout the country. He was the first president of the United States who had died in office. The members of his cabinet, in their official notification of the event, said, "The people of the United States, overwhelmed like ourselves by an event so unexpected and so melancholy, will derive consolation from knowing that his death was calm and resigned, as his life had been patriotic, useful, and distinguished; and that the last utterance of his lips expressed a fervent desire for the perpetuity of the con-

stitution and the preservation of its true principles. In death, as in life, the happiness of his country was uppermost in his thoughts."

President Harrison was distinguished by a generosity and liberality of feeling which was exercised beyond what strict justice to himself and family should have permitted. With ample opportunity for amassing immense wealth, he ever disdained to profit by his public situation for private emolument. His theory was too rigidly honest to permit him to engage in speculation, and his chivalry was too sensitive to permit him to use the time belonging to his country, for private benefit. After nearly fifty years devotion to his duties in the highest stations, he left at his death but little more to his family than the inheritance of an unsullied reputation.

The only important act of President Harrison's administration was the calling of an extra session of Congress, to adopt measures to revive credit and relieve the commercial embarrassments of the country. His cabinet was composed as follows:—Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, secretary of state; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, secretary of the treasury; John Bell, of Tennessee, secretary of war; George E. Badger, of North Carolina, secretary of the navy. John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, attorney-general; and Francis Granger, of New York, postmaster-general. This cabinet included much ability, and much was expected from its labours.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

The secretary of state under President Harrison's administration ranks among the greatest orators and statesmen whom America has produced. He was born at Salisbury, New Hampshire, on the 18th of January, 1782. He was the son of Ebenezer and Abigail Webster. His father had served in the French and in the Revolutionary wars, and had particularly distinguished himself as the captain of a volunteer company under Stark, at Bennington. Young Webster received an ordinary school education, the merits of which at that day and in his region were little enough. Such as his advantages were, he improved them to the utmost, and early impressed upon his instructers and other friends the conviction of rare mental qualities. In his fourteenth year, he was placed in Phillips Academy at Exeter, New Hampshire, at that time under the care of Dr. Benjamin Abbot. It is remarked as a curious circumstance, that at this time the future

orator displayed the most marked aversion to declamation, and the thought of it was to him a bugbear. After a few months' stay in Exeter, he was placed with the Rev. Samuel Wood, for tuition and preparation for college. The prospect of a collegiate education was then first opened to him by his father, and kindled in his breast the warmest hopes, stimulating him to unremitted exertions. Six months sufficed to put the ambitious student in a condition to enter Dartmouth College, which he did in August, 1797. The four years here spent were characterized by earnest study, and his subsequent honours were even then divined by the more sagacious of his associates. In August, 1801, he commenced his legal education in his native town, under the supervision of Mr. Thompson, a respectable practitioner, and completed his preparatory training for the bar, in March, 1805, in Boston, when he was admitted to practise in the Suffolk court of common pleas. Hon. Christopher Gore made the motion for his admission, and took the pains to prophesy his future celebrity. Mr. Webster began practice in the village of Boscawen, whence he removed to Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in September, 1807, having by a fortunate decision declined the offered clerkship of the county court of common pleas in Hillsborough, New Hampshire, which, had he accepted it, would probably have entirely changed the current of his life. Mr. Webster resided in Portsmouth nine years, enjoying the friendship and profiting by the rivalry of such men as Samuel Dexter, Joseph Story, Jeremiah Smith, and Jeremiah Mason.

It was in the thirteenth Congress, which first met in extra session in May, 1813, that Daniel Webster commenced his political career, having been chosen representative from New Hampshire in the previous November. Of the house, Henry Clay was speaker, who appointed the new member on the committee of foreign affairs, a responsible post in the existing situation of the nation. Mr. Webster delivered his maiden speech on the 10th of June, 1813, and almost immediately assumed a front rank among debaters. His speeches, chiefly on topics connected with the war then raging between England and the United States, were characterized by masterly vigour, and by uncommon acquaintance with constitutional learning and the history and traditions of the government. He advocated the improvement and increase of the navy; and in 1816, when at the close of the war, commerce and manufactures attained a sudden development, entered prominently into the discussion of the tariff. In this, he considered a moderate degree of protection as the established policy of the United States. He opposed the passage of the national bank bill of April, 1816.

Mr. Webster having now found the arena of Portsmouth too limited, removed to Boston in August, 1816, and took the place which belonged to his commanding talent and legal eminence. The trial of the famous Dartmouth College case, in March, 1818, involving constitutional questions, was one of high importance, and brought into requisition Mr. Webster's peculiar abilities. Mr. Webster retired from Congress in 1817, but was re-elected from Boston in 1822. On the 19th of January, 1823, he made his great speech in behalf of the Greeks, and one on the Panama Mission in April, 1826. Beside these, his Plymouth Oration of the 22d of December, 1820, that at Bunker Hill in 1825, and his Eulogy upon Adams and Jefferson in 1826, are well known. In January, 1828, Mr. Webster took his seat in the United States senate. The great encounter with Colonel Hayne, of South Carolina, took place in January, 1830, and was one of the most interesting, and, perhaps, one of the most important epochs in his life. Mr. Webster supported the bill of 1832, for the recharter of the bank; in the Nullification movement of that year he powerfully co-operated with President Jackson, and made a memorable speech in reply to Mr. Calhoun in February, 1833. The fiscal policy of Jackson and Van Buren found a steady opponent in Mr. Webster, as well in its original form of an unlimited expansion of the paper f the State banks, as in the substitute of an exclusively metallic currency for the government, which was brought forward after the league of the deposit banks had exploded. General Jackson's memorable protest of April 17, 1834, against the action of the senate, drew forth a powerful speech on the 7th of May. On the independent treasury bill of 1838, Mr. Webster also made several able and elaborate speeches.

In the spring of 1839, Mr. Webster visited Europe for the first and only time in his life, making a hasty tour through England, Scotland, and France. In the political revolution of 1840, Mr. Webster acted a leading part, and on the accession of General Harrison to the presidency, in 1841, he was named secretary of state. In 1842 he negotiated with Lord Ashburton the settlement of the north-eastern boundary question with Great Britain, and the treaty made by these diplomatists was ratified August 20th of that year. In May, 1843, Mr. Webster resigned his station, and returned for a short time to private life, but was re-elected to the senate in 1845. He opposed the war with Mexico in 1846, but sustained the administration by voting for liberal supplies, and facilitated every approach to an honourable peace. Foreseeing the evils arising from a great acquisition of territory, he opposed those portions of the treaty of Guada-

lupe Hidalgo which related to that subject. In the settlement of questions arising from these accessions, Mr. Webster took a great part, and brought the whole weight of his talents and influence to the accomplishment of the compromise of 1850. His speech of March 7th had great effect to this end. On the decease of General Taylor, Mr. Webster was called by President Fillmore to the department of state, and remained to the last days of his eventful life in the laborious discharge of the duties of that important and responsible office. A few weeks after Mr. Webster's accession to this office, Chevalier Hülsemann, the Austrian minister, addressed a complaint to the American government in relation to its alleged interference in the internal affairs of Austria. This was answered by Mr. Webster in one of the finest state papers in the archives of diplomacy. Mr. Webster died on the 24th of October, 1852, at the age of seventy years.

As a jurist, Mr. Webster, if exceeded by some of his contemporaries in range and depth of professional reading, was still master of all the learning required for the discussion of every question, however abstruse. No detail, however technical, resisted the grasp of his memory. The prominent features in his argumentation were extraordinary clearness, skill, and compactness of statement, and rare condensation, together with surpassing logic. His forcible eloquence appears remarkably in his speech at Salem, on the trial of John Francis Knapp for murder, in July, 1830. As a statesman in the most complete meaning of the term, few Americans have ever equalled, and none surpassed him. He studied and judged every thing in all its relations and in all its details, and brought to bear a liberal comprehensiveness. In range of political knowledge, in soundness of constitutional interpretation, and in the ability to produce an overwhelming effect on a given question within the walls of a deliberative assembly, Mr. Webster was far superior to any of his day. In addition to the jurist and statesman, he united the character of an accomplished scholar. He was familiar with many of the great writers of antiquity, and master of the entire range of English literature. His memory was stored with choice passages from the poets, and the entire range of the history of Great Britain, civil and parliamentary, was at his command. With no work, ancient or modern, was he more familiar than with the Bible, whose merit in every capacity he appreciated.

JOHN J. CRITTENDEN.

John J. Crittenden, attorney-general of the United States, under General Harrison's administration, was born in Woodford county, Kentucky, in 1782. He was educated for the bar under the best auspices. He soon rose to distinction as a lawyer and advocate, possessing a commanding presence and great oratorial power. After serving in the legislature, Mr. Crittenden was elected a member of the Senate of the United States, as the colleague of Isham Talbot, in 1817. He continued in that body but two years. From 1819 to 1835, he continued to practice his profession, as one of the first lawyers in Kentucky, residing principally at Frankfort, and occasionally representing his county in the State legislature. In 1835, Mr. Crittenden was again elected to the United States Senate, and he continued to be one of the most distinguished members of that body until March, 1841, when he was appointed attorney-general by President Harrison. On the dissolution of the connection of the Whigs with John Tyler, Mr. Crittenden resigned his office and retired to private life, from which, however, he was soon called by the legislature, to resume his seat in the United States Senate, (1842.) He was also elected senator for another term of six years, from March, 1843; but in 1848, having received the Whig nomination for governor of Kentucky, he retired from the senate. He was elected governor by a large majority, and he continued in that office until 1850, when President Fillmore appointed him attorney-general of the United States, which office he held until the close of the administration, when he retired to his home in Kentucky. Mr. Crittenden is in the maturity of his powers, and evidently has a long career of public service yet before him. He has long been conspicuous among the leaders of the Whig party, and is justly considered one of the ablest and most patriotic men of which that party can boast. His personal friendship for Mr. Clay, and his unanimity in counsel and action with him, has, on innumerable occasions, led to the association of their names together in the advocacy of public measures. Such a friendship was alike honourable to both parties. Colonel Crittenden, who accompanied Lopez in his ill-fated expedition to Cuba, and lost his life in the affair, was a relative of the statesman.

THOMAS EWING.

THE secretary of the treasury under President Harrison, was the son of Major George Ewing, a soldier of the Revolution, and one of the first settlers of Ohio. His boyhood was passed in Hocking county, then almost a wilderness. He was employed at a salt-works. At an early age Thomas was left to his own resources, and they happily proved adequate to the circumstances. Having resolved to obtain an education, he succeeded in entering a seminary—one of the first founded in Ohio—and, it is said, while there, supported himself by mechanical labour. Having secured a tolerable knowledge of the classics, he began the study of the law, supporting himself in the mean time by teaching school. On being admitted to the bar, Mr. EWING commenced the practice of his profession in Fairfield county, where he soon rose to distinction both as a lawyer and a politician. He became successively a member of the legislature, and a representative, and then senator in Congress. He was then ranked as one of the leading men of the West. On the accession of General Harrison to the presidency, Mr. Ewing was appointed secretary of the treasury. He continued in that post until the rupture of the cabinet under Mr. Tyler's administration, when he resumed the practice of the law at Lancaster, Ohio. Upon the accession of General Taylor to the presidency, he was appointed secretary of the interior, being the first head of that department. He discharged the duties of the office ably until the death of General Taylor, in July, 1850, when he resigned and returned to Ohio. At the next session of Congress, he took his seat in the senate, having been appointed to fill an unexpired term. Upon the expiration of the term, Mr. Ewing again resumed the practice of his profession, in which he has an extensive and lucrative practice. In politics, he acts with the Whig party, leaning to the Free-soil wing. He has displayed great natural ability, and is a noble example of what a determined self-reliance may accomplish.

The precise dates of Mr. Ewing's cabinet appointments are as follows:—He was appointed secretary of the treasury, and confirmed by the senate, on the 5th of March, 1841. His term of service was closed by his resignation, and his successor, Walter Forward of Pennsylvania, was confirmed on the 13th of September of the same year.

He was appointed secretary of the interior on the 7th of March, 1849, and remained in office till July, 1850.

JOHN BELL.

John Bell, secretary of war under President Harrison, was born in 1796, and is a native of Tennessee. He received an excellent education, and then turned his attention to the study of the law. He entered the political arena early in life, and after serving in the State legislature, was elected to the national house of representatives. There he became distinguished for energy, ability, and eloquence. He was one of the earliest supporters of General Jackson for the presidency; but upon the removal of the deposites, he joined the opposition, and by that party was elected speaker of the house of representatives. At the next Congress he was again a candidate for that post, but was defeated by James K. Polk. He was soon afterward elected governor of Tennessee—was appointed secretary of war under President Harrison—resigned, and was then elected to the United States senate, of which he continues an active member. Mr. Bell is one of the most distinguished statesmen of the conservative school.

GEORGE E. BADGER.

George E. Badger, of North Carolina, was secretary of the navy under President Harrison. He was born in North Carolina about 1795. Having received a classical education, he turned his attention to the study of law, and being admitted to practice, soon acquired reputation for legal learning and ability in debate. He entered the political arena in early life, as a conservative, and after taking an active part in local affairs, was elected to Congress. There he distinguished himself as a vigorous opponent of the measures of Martin Van Buren's administration. In 1840, he supported General Harrison for the presidency, and upon the accession of that illustrious man on the 4th of March, 1841, was appointed secretary of the navy. He continued in that office until the rupture of the cabinet under President Tyler, when he resigned. Mr. Badger was soon afterward elected to a seat in the senate of the United States, where he has continued to take an active and influential part in debate until the present day.

FRANCIS GRANGER.

This gentleman was, for a considerable period, one of the most active and influential politicians in the Empire State. During the administrations of Presidents Jackson and Van Buren, his name figured in all the grand political movements of the times. It will be recollected by the reader, that the nomination of General Harrison for the office of president, called forth a great and unusual amount of enthusiasm, and that the political campaign of that period was carried on with a degree of earnestness and activity which has hardly been witnessed on any other similar occasion. Every man, woman, and child in the country participated in the patriotic feeling of the time, and the question of the presidency was the great question of the day. In this canvass Mr. Granger took a very active part in advocating the claims of the war-worn veteran, and none felt a sincerer gratification at his success.

When President Harrison formed his cabinet, Mr. Granger was selected from among the prominent men of the time as postmaster-general, and his nomination was confirmed on the 6th of March, 1841. The sudden decease of President Harrison, it will be remembered, occasioned a total change of policy in the administration; and when that change became clearly apparent, the whole cabinet, with the exception of Mr. Webster, resigned office. This took place in September, 1841. Since that period, Mr. Granger appears to have taken less interest in politics, until very recently, he has come forward with a proposition for reorganizing the Whig party.

For the realization of this scheme, the present time does not appear to be particularly propitious. A new party, called the American Party, has recently sprung up, which, for the present time at least, appears to have deranged all the pre-existing party organizations. It has, of course, been dependant on the old parties for recruits; and it has drawn so largely upon them, that the sceptre of power is rapidly departing from both the two great parties who have alternately swayed the destinies of this great nation. Whether it is from the circumstance that the Whigs are now in opposition to the administration of the general government, or from any particular partiality to the views of the new party, we are unable to say; but it is quite apparent that the American party are chiefly indebted to the Whigs for their overwhelming success at the polls. This renders it improbable that the old Whig party will be speedily reorganized.

John Tyler.

JOHN TYLER.

The successor of President Harrison was John Tyler, of Virginia. He was born in Charles City county, Virginia, on the 29th of March, 1790. He was descended from a family distinguished in the history of Virginia. After receiving the usual elementary instructions, he entered William and Mary College. He graduated at the age of seventeen, with almost unrivalled honours. He then commenced the study of the law under his father and Edmund Raddolph, and at nineteen years of age he was admitted to practise his profession. This was certainly a precocious display of ability.

At twenty years of age, Mr. Tyler was offered a seat in the legislature; but he declined the honour until the following year, (1811,) when he was elected to the house of delegates. Soon after taking his seat he came forward as an advocate of the war policy of Madison's administration, and delivered speeches which were certainly remarkable as coming from so young a man. He was elected to the legislature for five successive years. In the mean time, while the British forces were in the Chesapeake, he raised a volunteer company, and effected an organization of the militia in his neighbourhood. But he never had an opportunity to serve his country in the field.

In 1815, Mr. Tyler was elected a member of the executive council of Virginia; and he served in that position until November, 1816, when he was chosen over the popular Andrew Stevenson to represent the Richmond district in Congress. This was to fill a vacancy. But in the spring of the next year he was re-elected by a large majority over the same distinguished opponent.

In the house of representatives, Mr. Tyler's speeches were numerous and effective. In 1819 he was re-elected without opposition. Before

the end of the term, however, ill health compelled him to resign his seat, and he retired to his estate in Charles City county. In 1823, he consented to become a candidate for the legislature, and was elected. As a State legislator he was active and influential. Many of the finest public works in Virginia were the result of his foresight and energy. The people of the State appreciated his services; and in December, 1825, he was elected governor by a large majority. His administration was energetic and beneficial to the State in every respect. He was re-elected at the expiration of his term of office.

Not long after his re-election to the gubernatorial chair, John Randolph's term of office, as senator of the United States, expired. A large portion of the Democratic party were opposed to his re-election, as no reliance could be placed upon him. Governor Tyler consented to stand as the opposition candidate, and was chosen to the United States Senate by a majority of five votes.

A few days afterward, Mr. Tyler resigned the office of governor. On the 3d of December, 1827, Mr. Tyler took his seat in the senate of the United States, and immediately was ranked among the most energetic members of the opposition to the Adams' administration. On the accession of General Jackson to the presidency, Mr. Tyler supported his administration with zeal and ability.

In February, 1836, the legislature of Virginia adopted resolutions instructing the senators from that State to vote for expunging from the journal of the senate a resolution censuring the conduct of General Jackson. Both senators considered such a course unconstitutional and inexpedient. Mr. Leigh refused to obey the instructions. Mr. Tyler agreed with Mr. Leigh in opinion, but thought proper to adopt a different course of action: he resigned his seat, and returned to the practice of his profession, with a greatly increased reputation.

In 1830, Mr. Tyler had removed from Charles City county to Gloucester, where his family resided until 1835. He then returned to Williamsburg, and devoted himself to his private affairs. But his name was kept before the people. For in the same year, he was nominated by the State Rights' party for the vice-presidency. At the election in 1836, he received forty-seven electoral votes. In the spring of 1838, he was elected from James City county to the Virginia house of delegates, where, during the subsequent session of the legislature, he acted with the Whig party.

In 1839, Mr. Tyler was chosen a delegate from Virginia to the Whig national convention, which met at Harrisburg, to nominate candidates for the two great national offices. He there exerted himself to procure the nomination of Mr. Clay; but General Harrison

obtained a majority of votes. To conciliate the friends of Mr. Clay, Mr. Tyler was then nominated for the vice-presidency. The party was triumphant—Harrison and Tyler were elected by a large majority. On the 4th of March, 1841, Mr. Tyler was inaugurated vice-president of the United States.

Upon the death of President Harrison, Mr. Tyler succeeded to the chief-magistracy. He immediately took the oath of office, and, after the funeral ceremonies of the lamented Harrison had been performed, issued an inaugural address which was deemed satisfactory by the party which had elected him to office. The cabinet appointed by President Harrison was retained, and this tended to inspire the dominant party with confidence. Mr. Tyler removed many Democrats from office and appointed Whigs and conservatives to fill their places.

The twenty-seventh Congress met in extra session on the 31st day of May, 1841. There was a decided administration majority in each house. The first proceeding of importance was the official recognition of John Tyler, as "president of the United States," instead of as "vice-president, acting as president." The message of the president, though somewhat ambiguous in its expressions, was satisfactory to the majority. The plan of a national bank, reported by the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Ewing, was put in the form of a bill and passed finally by Congress, on the 6th of August. The president retained the bill until the 16th of August, and then returned it to the senate with a veto message. This completely bewildered the Whigs, and excited alarm and anxiety among the party throughout the country. But the majority in Congress still retained hope. The president, in his message, had suggested the plan of a bank which met his approbation. A new bill was prepared in conformity with this suggestion, the title of "fiscal corporation" being substituted for that of "bank," and this measure passed Congress. In the mean time, the president had signed bills repealing the sub-treasury and establishing a uniform bankrupt law. After some deliberation, the president returned the second bank bill to the senate with his objections. An immense excitement followed. The Whigs denounced the president as treacherous to the party which had placed him in power, while the Democrats warmly applauded his course. On the 11th of September, all the members of the cabinet, except Mr. Webster, resigned. The secretary of state remained in office, because he said he could see no sufficient reason for the dissolution of the cabinet by the voluntary act of its own members, and because he agreed with the president on the subjects of the foreign relations.

At this time, a difficulty was pending between the United States and Great Britain, concerning the northern boundary of Maine, and it was believed that Mr. Webster could render valuable services to the country while he remained in office. Congress adjourned on the 13th of September. Shortly previous to the adjournment, the Whig members adopted an address to the people of the United States, defending their course of action, and announcing that all political connection between them and the president had been dissolved.

The new cabinet was composed of the following distinguished Whigs and conservatives:—Walter Forward, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury; John McLean, of Ohio, secretary of war; Abel P. Upshur, of Virginia, secretary of the navy; Charles A. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, postmaster-general; Hugh S. Legare, of South Carolina, attorney-general. Judge McLean declining to resign his seat on the bench of the supreme court, John C. Spencer, of New York, was appointed secretary of war.

On the 6th of December, 1841, the second session of the twenty-seventh Congress commenced. It continued until the 31st of August, 1842. During this long period, a vast amount of business of vital importance to the country was transacted. The great measure of the session was a new tariff law, by which ample provision was made for the public revenue, and protection afforded to American manufactures.

In 1842, an important treaty was negotiated at Washington between the United States and Great Britain, by which the north-eastern boundary was settled to the satisfaction of both parties. Secretary Webster acted on the part of the United States, and Lord Ashburton on the part of Great Britain. The treaty was ratified by the senate on the 20th of August.

At the third session of the twenty-seventh Congress, which began on the 5th of December, 1842, and ended on the 3d of March, 1843, a number of important measures were adopted. The bankrupt law was repealed. When the twenty-eighth Congress assembled in December, 1843, the Democrats had a large majority in the house of representatives. The Whigs retained a majority in the senate. Among the acts adopted, may be mentioned—one making appropriation for the improvements of rivers and harbours; one for revolutionary and other pensioners; and one to refund the fine imposed on General Andrew Jackson, at New Orleans.

An almost unprecedented number of changes were made in the cabinet during this administration.

In March, 1843, Mr. Forward resigned, as secretary of the trea-

sury, and John C. Spencer was transferred from the war department to that of the treasury. Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, was previously nominated by the president for secretary of the treasury, and rejected by the senate. Mr. Webster resigned the office of secretary of state in May, 1843, and Hugh S. Legare, attorney-general, was appointed acting secretary of state, but was soon after taken ill, and died, while on a visit to Boston, on the 20th of June, 1843.

In July, 1843, President Tyler reorganized his cabinet as follows: —Abel P. Upshur, of Virginia, secretary of state; John C. Spencer, of New York, secretary of the treasury; James M. Porter, of Pennsylvania, secretary of war; David Henshaw, of Massachusetts, secretary of the navy; Charles A. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, postmaster-general; John Nelson, of Maryland, attorney-general. Messrs. Porter, Henshaw, and Nelson, were attached to the Democratic party; the other members of the cabinet had been known as Whigs or conservatives. At the next session of the senate, the nominations of Mr. Porter, as secretary of war, and of Mr. Henshaw, as secretary of the navy, were rejected. Thereupon the president nominated William Wilkins, of Pennsylvania, for secretary of war, and Thomas W. Gilmer, of Virginia, for secretary of the navy; and they were confirmed by the senate, on the 15th of February, 1844. In consequence of a melancholy catastrophe which occurred on board the United States steamship-of-war Princeton, on the river Potomac, on the 28th of February, 1844, by the explosion of one of the large guns of that ship, the secretary of state, Mr. Upshur, and the secretary of war, Mr. Gilmer, lost their lives. For a short period, Mr. Nelson, attorney-general of the United States, discharged the duties of secretary of state *ad interim*. Commodore Lewis Warrington officiated as secretary of the navy, until the vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. Gilmer was supplied. The president appointed John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, secretary of state, and John Y. Mason, of Virginia, secretary of the navy—both of which nominations were promptly confirmed by the senate. Mr. Spencer resigned the office of secretary of the treasury, in May, 1844, and George M. Bibb, of Kentucky, was appointed in his place.

Two important treaties signalized the remainder of this administration: one, concluded between the United States and China, and a treaty of annexation, concluded between the United States and Texas. The latter was negotiated at Washington on the 12th of April, 1844, by Mr. Calhoun on the part of the United States, and Messrs. Van Zandt and Henderson, on the part of Texas. But this treaty was rejected by the senate. It was evident, however, that

the question of annexation would be introduced into the political contest of 1844.

In May, the two great parties held their national conventions in Baltimore, Maryland. The Whigs nominated Henry Clay, of Kentucky, for president, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, for the vice-presidency. When the Democratic national convention met, it was ascertained that Mr. Van Buren had a majority of votes. But that distinguished statesman had expressed himself averse to the annexation of Texas, and there was a determination shown to prevent his being nominated as the candidate of the party. A rule was adopted, making a vote of two-thirds necessary to a choice. On the ninth ballot, James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was unanimously nominated for the presidency, and subsequently, George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was nominated as the Democratic candidate for vice-president. Mr. Tyler threw his influence in favour of the Democratic candidates, and, after an exciting canvass, they were elected by a majority of sixty-five electoral votes.

The second session of the twenty-eighth Congress commenced on the 2d of December, 1844, and closed on the expiration of their term, the 3d of March, 1845. Amid much important business that was transacted, the passage of joint resolutions providing for the annexation of Texas to the Union, assumed the first place. The resolutions passed the house of representatives on the 25th of January, 1845, and the senate, on the succeeding 1st of March. They were immediately approved by President Tyler, and thus this exciting measure was consummated on the part of the United States. Among the public acts of interest passed at this session, were the following: To establish a uniform time for holding elections for electors of president and vice-president, in all the States in the Union; to provide for the establishment of the mail between the United States and foreign countries; granting lands to the State of Indiana, to enable the State to extend and complete the Wabash and Erie canal; to reduce the rates of postage, and to limit the use, and correct the abuse, of the franking privilege; allowing drawback upon foreign merchandise exported by the interior to Mexico and the British North American provinces; for the construction and improvement of roads in Wisconsin; making appropriations for fortifications; and an act for the admission of the States of Iowa and Florida into the Union. Florida complied with the terms of the last act, and was, consequently, admitted into the Union; but the people of Iowa rejected the terms, principally on account of the boundary defined by Congress, and, therefore, Iowa remained a territory.

Mr. Tyler retired from office without the regret of either of the great political parties. But it cannot be denied that the administration was decided and vigorous, and that the foreign relations of the republic had been ably managed during its continuance.

On retiring from office in March, 1845, Mr. Tyler fixed his residence in Virginia, on the James River, nine miles below Berkeley, where, in the enjoyment of health and competency, he looked to passing the remainder of his days. The first wife of Mr. Tyler died in September, 1842; and while he was in office, he married Miss Julia Gardiner, of New York city.

In person, Mr. Tyler is tall and thin, with prominent features, and light blue eyes. In domestic life, he is an amiable companion. There is a wide difference of opinion as to the merits of his political course; but it cannot be doubted that in many high stations he has displayed remarkable powers of mind.

ABEL P. UPSHUR.

The Hon. Abel Parker Upshur was the son of Littleton Upshur, and was born in Northampton, county Virginia, June 17th, 1790. "He received his classical education at Yale and Princeton colleges, and studied law under the instruction of his friend, the Hon. William Wirt, at Richmond, where he practised his profession from 1810 until 1824, when he removed to Vaucluse, his patrimonial residence, in this county. In the courts of the Eastern Shore, he continued the practice of his profession until December 15th, 1826, when he was appointed by the legislature to fill the vacancy on the bench of the general court, caused by the death of his maternal uncle, Judge George Parker. He had previously represented his native county in the State legislature. On the 5th of October, 1829, he was elected a member of the general convention of Virginia. He published a pamphlet containing a review of Judge Story's work on the Constitution of the United States, and contributed many articles to the newspapers on the topics of the day. On the reorganization of the judicial system of Virginia, under the new constitution, he was reappointed, April 18, 1831, to a seat on the bench of the general court, and was assigned to the third judicial circuit. This office he continued to fill until the 13th of September, 1841, when he was appointed by President Tyler secretary of the navy. On the 24th of

July, 1843, he was transferred, under the same administration, to the office of secretary of state, which he held until the time of his death, February 28th, 1844, which was occasioned by the explosion of a large gun on board the United States steamer Princeton."

The Southern Literary Messenger says, that the ancestors of Mr. Upshur settled upon the eastern shore of Virginia more than two centuries since. His family is one of the oldest in Virginia, and has been remarkable for staid habits and sterling worth. Generation after generation they remained upon the Eastern Shore, cultivating the soil, and ornamenting society. From the same source we learn that Mr. Upshur was considered one of the most graceful and accomplished orators. His style was unexceptionably good, his arguments forcible, and set forth in sentences remarkable for terse and vigorous language. His speech in the Virginia convention of 1829–30, is said to have been one of the ablest and best delivered during the sitting. He never took a leading position in politics until called to the presidential cabinet. Mr. Upshur was an able writer, and one of the most polished contributors to the periodical literature of the country.

WALTER FORWARD.

Walter Forward, secretary of the treasury under President Tyler, was born in Connecticut in 1786. Mr. Forward was a native of Connecticut, where he received a liberal education. He removed to Pittsburg in 1803, and studied law with the late Henry Baldwin. In December, 1805, he became editor of the Democratic paper called the Tree of Liberty. From 1806 to 1822 he was engaged in the practice of law, and as a pleader had few equals. In 1822, he was elected to Congress as representative, where he continued till March, 1825. In the great contest between Adams and Jackson, he supported the former, and was ever thereafter numbered among the most distinguished members of the Whig party. In 1837, he bore a prominent part in the Pennsylvania convention to reform the State constitution. In March, 1841, General Harrison named him first comptroller of the treasury, which post he held until he was appointed by Mr. Tyler secretary of the treasury. To the enactment of the tariff of 1842, his able report on that subject much contributed. On retiring from Mr. Tyler's cabinet, he resumed and continued his

practice at the bar, until appointed by General Taylor chargé d'affaires to Denmark, where he spent several years, resigning his situation to return home in order to accept the office of president-judge of the district court of Allegheny county, to which he had been called by popular election. While in court, employed in his judicial duties, he was suddenly taken ill, and died in forty-eight hours, November 24, 1852.

Mr. Forward was a man of uncommon private worth, of incorruptible honesty, of kindly sympathies, and great benevolence. He struggled long and heroically with comparative poverty, but it was his good fortune to achieve success, with the good wishes and the good opinion of all.

JOHN C. SPENCER.

Mr. Spencer, we believe, is a native of the State of New York. At any rate, that state has been the great theatre of his active and distinguished political life. He was, for many years, secretary of state of New York; and in this capacity had the superintendence of the public schools. It was under his auspices that the admirable system of school libraries, which has been found so eminently useful in that State, was matured and brought into successful operation. Perhaps, among all the public services of Mr. Spencer, this will be the most lasting in its effects.

Under the presidency of Mr. Tyler, Mr. Spencer was appointed secretary of war, on the 12th of October, 1841. This appointment took place in the recess of the senate; and it was confirmed by that body on the 20th of December of the same year. On the resignation of the office of secretary of the treasury by the Hon. Walter Forward of Pennsylvania, Mr. Spencer resigned his place in the war department, and was appointed to succeed Mr. Forward as secretary of the treasury, on the 3d of March, 1843, in which office he continued to serve until the 15th of June, 1844, when he resigned. It was the singular and painful lot of Mr. Spencer, while he was a member of Mr. Tyler's cabinet, to suffer a domestic loss of the most unparalleled kind. His son was put to death for an alleged mutiny, while serving as an officer on board of one of the national vessels.

GEORGE M. BIBB.

George M. Bibb, who succeeded John C. Spencer as secretary of the treasury, was born in Virginia. He emigrated to Kentucky when young, studied law, and soon distinguished himself at the bar for his legal acquirements, solid judgment, and cogent reasoning. He rose rapidly in his profession, and it was not long before he was numbered among the ablest and soundest lawyers in the country. He became well known in a short time, was in politics a republican, acquired the esteem and confidence of his countrymen, to which his honest, consistent, and undeviating advocacy of the rights of the occupying claimants contributed not a little. He was appointed by the legislature of Kentucky to defend the occupying claimant-laws before the supreme court of the United States, and against the State of Virginia,—a trust which he discharged with great ability and in a very satisfactory manner to his countrymen.

Judge Bibb has been three times chief-justice of the State of Kentucky—the second time upon the reorganization of the court of appeals at the session of 1824–5—consequently he belonged to the *new court* side of the *old* and *new court* question, by which the State was so long and so fearfully agitated about that time, and of course believed in the competency of the legislature to enact what were called *relief* laws—including laws for the stay of execution, replevin laws, and laws for the valuation of property taken in execution—without which power, the legislative branch of the government would seem to be imperfect.

Judge Bibb has been twice elected to the Senate of the United States—the last time when General Jackson was first elected President of the United States, to whom he gave his cordial support, both when the general was first a candidate in 1824, and when he was elected in 1828—which support was in a short time withdrawn, however.

Upon the judge's retirement from the senate, he was appointed chancellor of the chancery court of the city of Louisville, in which tribunal he fully sustained his high character as an able and impartial administrator of justice. And in that office he continued until invited, in 1844, by President Tyler, to take charge of the treasury department of the United States. From this he retired in 1845, upon the inauguration of President Polk; and since then he has resided at Washington city, practicing law in the supreme court of

the United States, and in the courts of the district of Columbia; and has the rare good fortune of enjoying, in the evening of his life, much of the activity, with all the mental vigour and vivacity of his younger days.

JAMES M. PORTER.

James M. Porter was the son of a gallant and patriotic father—General Andrew Porter of Montgomery county, Pennsylvania. General Porter served with distinction in the Revolution, and President Madison offered him a commission of brigadier-general in the regular army, and also the post of secretary of war, both of which he declined. James M. Porter was born near Norristown, in Montgomery county. Having received an excellent education, he studied law, and soon became distinguished. He had his father's inclination for military affairs, and became a general of militia. He also held a number of civil offices, and became an influential politician. He was appointed secretary of war by President Tyler, and, during his short service in that position, gave evidence of much ability and energy.

WILLIAM WILKINS.

William Wilkins was born in Alleghany county, Pennsylvania. He was educated for the bar. As an advocate, Judge Hall speaks of him as "being distinguished for his graceful, easy style of speaking, and his acuteness in the development of testimony." He succeeded Judge Roberts upon the bench of the Alleghany circuit, and his great capacity for business, and decided political action, secured for him a large number of public offices. He was appointed minister to Russia under Martin Van Buren's administration, and secretary of war under the administration of John Tyler. Since his retirement from that position, Mr. Wilkins has been an active member of the Democratic party. He resides at his splendid mansion, near Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. His character is estimable in every respect.

DAVID HENSHAW.

David Henshaw, who succeeded Mr. Upshur as secretary of the navy, was born in Massachusetts, in 1792. He was a man of marked energy of character. Engaged for many years in successful commerce, he likewise took an active part in politics, espousing the Democratic side. By General Jackson he was made, in April, 1830, collector of the port of Boston, and for eight years discharged his duties with fidelity and discretion. In 1843, he was appointed secretary of the navy by President Tyler, though the nomination was not confirmed by the Senate. He ardently aided the cause of internal improvements in Massachusetts, and was one of the original directors of the Boston and Worcester railroad. The numerous contributions of Mr. Henshaw to the public journals, especially to the Boston Post, commanded much attention. During his last years he suffered severely from an hereditary malady, the gout, which necessarily diminished his activity in public matters, though without impairing his interest in them, or diverting him from many purposes of private benevolence.

Mr. Henshaw died on the 11th of November, 1852.

THOMAS W. GILMER.

This gentleman was a native of Virginia. He studied and practiced law in that state, and early in life rose to eminence as a politician. He was elected a member of the House of Representatives in the national legislature, and served for several terms. Under the administration of President Tyler, Mr. Gilmer received the appointment of secretary of the navy in the place of David Henshaw, of Massachusetts, whose nomination had been rejected by the senate. Mr. Gilmer's nomination was confirmed by the Senate of the United States on the 15th of February, 1844.

Unfortunately, Mr. Gilmer's term of service in this important office was cut short by one of those terrible catastrophes which, at rare intervals, startle and astonish the country by their disastrous effects. On the occasion of the president, his cabinet, and other distinguished persons being invited to visit the national steamship Princeton, then in the waters of the Potomac, (February 25th, 1844,) an explosion of the large gun of the steamship took place, killing and wounding a number of persons. Among the unfortunate victims of this disastrous accident, was Mr. Gilmer.

JOHN Y. MASON.

JOHN Y. MASON is a native of Southampton county, Virginia. He was educated for the bar, and was so able and successful a lawyer as to be elevated early in life to the bench of one of the district courts of the State. His first appearance in Congress was during the administration of General Jackson. His congressional career exhibited marked ability, and his agreeable and conciliating address rendered him a popular member of Congress.

Mr. Mason was first advanced to the cabinet by Mr. Tyler, who appointed him to the office of secretary of the navy. On Mr. Polk's accession to the presidency, Mr. Mason accepted the office of attorney-general, which he retained till Mr. Bancroft's appointment to the office of minister to the court of St. James, when he was a second time appointed as secretary of the navy, which office he held through the period of the Mexican war, and till the close of Mr. Polk's administration. Soon after Mr. Pierce's accession to office, Mr. Mason was appointed minister near the imperial court of Napoleon III., in which station he is still serving his country, (1855.)

In the latter part of the year 1854, Mr. Mason assisted at the famous diplomatic conference at Ostend, which has furnished so prolific a source of discussion in our political circles and in the newspapers. The diplomatists assembled on that memorable occasion, were Mr. Mason, Mr. Buchanan, the American ambassador at the Court of St. James, Mr. Soulé, our ambassador to Spain, and, if we recollect rightly, Mr. Belmont, the American chargé d'affaires at the Hague. It appears, by the correspondence between Mr. Soulé and Mr. Marcy, then secretary of state, that the chief subject of their conference was the proposed acquisition of Cuba by the United States. But a change in the policy of the administration, appears to have occasioned their abandonment of that object for the present.

In attempting to pass through to France, on his return from the Ostend conference to Madrid, Mr. Soulé was refused permission to land, and went over to London. Mr. Mason's spirited remonstrance against this inhospitality of the French government, was instantly followed by a free passage through France being accorded to Mr. Soulé.

Soon after this transaction, Mr. Mason was suddenly affected by a paralytic attack, which occasioned much alarm to his friends. The most recent advices, however, report him as decidedly convalescent.

AMOS KENDALL.

We are unable to find any record of the birthplace of this gentleman, except that, in the notice of his accession to office, he is spoken of as from Kentucky. In early life he was a tutor in the family of Henry Clay. He first became conspicuous as a politician during the administration of John Quincy Adams. He was one of the most earnest advocates for the election of General Jackson to the office of president. When that illustrious patriot was elected, his measures found no abler or more eloquent supporter than Mr. Kendall. As a political writer, he displayed the most signal ability. President Jackson soon learned to appreciate his talents, and honoured him with his confidence to such an extent as to attract the attention of all parties at the seat of government.

During his second administration, President Jackson appointed Mr. Kendall to the important office of postmaster-general. He was appointed on the 1st of May, 1835, in the recess of the senate. His nomination was confirmed on the 9th of March, 1836. He is said to have been one of the ablest postmasters-general the country has ever had. After President Jackson's decease, Mr. Kendall commenced a life of him, which was issued in numbers by the Messrs. Harper, of New York. From the pressure of other affairs, it appears that Mr. Kendall has never found time to complete this interesting and able work.

Recently, Mr. Kendall has become interested in the electric telegraph, and devotes the whole of his time to that concern. He resides in New York.

HUGH S. LEGARÉ.

Hugh Swinton Legaré, for a short time attorney-general of the United States under President Tyler, was born in Charleston, South Carolina, on the 2d of January, 1797. After receiving his early education in that city, he was sent to the school in the Abbeville district of the State, on the Savannah River, which was conducted by the Rev. Dr. Moses Waddell. When fourteen years of age, he was transferred to the college at Columbia. While there, his chief attention was given to the study of the Greek and Latin classics; although

his recitations in every department of the course of instruction were equal to those of any of his fellow-students. He graduated in December, 1841, with the highest honours of the institution; and on his return to Charleston, where his mother continued to reside, (his father died when he was quite young,) he entered upon the study of the law. He did not, however, like most young men who intend to practice the law as a profession, place himself formally in a lawyer's office, but was directed in his course of reading at home, on legal subjects, by an eminent member of the bar, Mr. Mitchell King, afterward Judge King. Three years were employed in this manner, relieved by the perusal of works of ancient and modern literature.

At the expiration of this term Mr. Legare went to Europe, with a fixed resolution to make his journey essentially one for improvement in knowledge, rather than for the mere gratification of an idle curiosity. During his stay at Paris, he applied himself particularly to the acquisition of a critical acquaintance with the French language, and with so much success as to be subsequently remarked for the correctness and elegance with which he spoke it. He also rendered himself familiar with the French writers of most reputation; and a portion of every day was devoted to the language and literature of modern Italy. From Paris he went by the way of London to Edinburgh, where, besides attending the classes of Playfair, Leslie, and Murray, on natural philosophy, mathematics, and chemistry, he devoted many hours each day to the study of the civil law, and, as a relaxation from severer occupations, prosecuted an extensive course of Italian reading. The spring of 1819 was employed by him in visiting different parts of England and Scotland; the summer was spent in London; and in the following autumn he travelled through Holland, Belgium, and France. He returned to his own country in the beginning of the year 1820, when he took up his residence, with his mother and a younger sister, on a plantation on John's Island, not very remote from Charleston. After two years occupied in agricultural pursuits, rendered necessary for retrieving his mother's affairs, which had become embarrassed during his absence, he succeeded in making an advantageous sale of this property. The family, in consequence, went back to Charleston, and then it was that Mr. Legare commenced the practice of his profession.

In 1820, he was elected to the State legislature from the parish of which John's Island was a part, and continued to represent it for four years: he represented the city of Charleston in that body from 1824 down to the time of his election to be attorney-general of the

State, in 1830. In the division of parties on general politics, he sided with that which held the doctrine of a strict construction of the constitution and limited powers of the government of the Union, but was, notwithstanding, one of those who, when it was proposed to enforce the doctrine by State interposition, dissented from the constitutionality and expediency of the measure proposed.

On the establishment of the "Southern Review," in 1827, Mr. Legare was selected, jointly with Mr. Stephen Elliott, as the editors of it. A principal object of this work was to serve as an organ for the political doctrines which prevailed in the southern section of the United States. Mr. Legare, we are told, consented to engage in this undertaking from a wish to gratify his friends who were anxious that he should do so, and from his State feeling,—"for he was then sensible, that a reputation of being occupied in the pursuits of literature was detrimental to his standing at the bar." He contributed a greater number of articles to the Review than any other individual; and it ceased to exist when, on his appointment to the office of attorney-general of South Carolina, he became so actively employed in the labours of his profession as to withdraw from it altogether his co-operation.

The merits of an argument pronounced by Mr. Legare before the supreme court of the United States at Washington, and especially the unusual display of civil law erudition which he made on that occasion, produced an intimacy between him and Mr. Edward Livingston, who was then secretary of state, that, in its turn, led to his appointment, in 1832, to be chargé d'affaires of the United States in Belgium. His residence at Brussels was continued till the autumn of 1836, when, after a tour through Northern Germany, he once more returned to his own country; and as a considerable portion of his time while abroad had been devoted to serious study, he returned to it with a very enlarged knowledge of the civil law, as well as an acquaintance with the German language and literature. It had been his intention to resume the practice of his profession on reaching America, but was for a short time diverted from his purpose by the wishes of his friends, who had, in expectation of his arrival, already put him in nomination for Congress. He went into this body as a supporter of the administration of Mr. Van Buren; and on taking ground against it, on account of his disapprobation of the financial policy which it proposed, he lost the favour of his constituents, and failed of a re-election. He at length felt himself at perfect liberty to follow his own predilections, and to recommence the practice of his profession in South Carolina. Cases of great importance were con-

fided to him, and he speedily occupied a conspicuous position in the foremost ranks of the bar.

In the mean time, however, Mr. Legare did not entirely abstract himself from the political contentions of the day, or allow his professional avocations to prevent him from taking an active part, by addresses delivered at New York, Richmond, and elsewhere, in promoting the election of General Harrison to the presidency. In 1841, he was selected by Mr. Tyler to fill the office of attorney-general of the United States, for which he was eminently qualified, and in performing the duties of which he commanded the respect of all parties. Besides performing those duties, he was, for a long *ad interim* period, the acting secretary of state during Mr. Tyler's administration of the government. His death occurred on the 16th of June, 1843, at Boston, whither he had accompanied the president to assist in the approaching Bunker Hill celebration.

In addition to his articles in the "Southern Review," Mr. Legare is the author of those in the "New York Review" on "Demosthenes, the Man, the Orator, and the Statesman," on the "Athenian Democracy," and on the "Origin, History, and Influence of the Roman Law," all of which are composed in an elaborate and copious style, and are replete with learning and keen and subtle disquisition.

JOHN NELSON.

On examining the list of the men who have filled the office of attorney-general since Washington's time, we find some of the most illustrious names in American history. Edmund Randolph of Virginia, was the first. He was one of the able men who formed our Constitution, and was also distinguished as Governor of Virginia. His successor, William Bradford, was one of the ablest lawyers of Pennsylvania. Next comes Charles Lee, a Virginian of distinguished ability, who held various offices requiring talents of a high order. His successor, Theophilis Parsons of Massachusetts, has always been considered the greatest of all the New England jurists. Hardly less eminent as a lawyer was Levi Lincoln of Massachusetts, who acted at one time as governor of that state. Among the successors of these remarkable men, we recognise the not less remarkable names of Robert Smith of Maryland, John Breckenridge of Kentucky,

Cæsar A. Rodney of Pennsylvania, William Pinckney of Maryland, Richard Rush of Pennsylvania, William Wirt of Virginia, John Macpherson Berrien of Georgia, Roger Brooke Taney of Maryland, Benjamin F. Butler of New York, Felix Grundy of Tennessee, Henry D. Gilpin of Pennsylvania, John F. Crittenden of Kentucky, and Hugh S. Legare of South Carolina. This brings us up to the administration of Mr. Tyler, during which Mr. Nelson was appointed. He is a native of Maryland, and was appointed attorney-general in the recess of the senate, on the 1st of July, 1843. His nomination was confirmed on the 2d of January, 1844. He resigned, and was succeeded by John G. Mason on the 5th of March, 1845.

CHARLES A. WICKLIFFE.

Charles A. Wickliffe, postmaster-general under President Tyler, was born in Nelson county, Kentucky, about 1790. He remained at home until his seventeenth year, when manifesting a desire for an education, he was sent to a grammar school in Bardstown, where he remained one year. He afterward enjoyed the benefit of Dr. Blythe's instructions for about nine months.

Expressing a desire to study law, he was placed under the tuition of his relative, General Martin D. Hardin. He was forced to enter upon the practice of his profession after a shorter term of preparation than was usual at that day,—for his father's property was little more than adequate to the support of his family; and young Wickliffe found himself almost wholly dependent upon his own exertions for the means of subsistence. His appearance at the bar was greeted by many warm friends of his youth, to whose kindness he was much indebted for his subsequent success, and for whom he has ever expressed the most grateful regard. Yet he had to struggle against a tremendous competition.

When the popular mind began to be deeply moved in reference to the vindication of our national rights and honour against the maritime tyranny of England, Mr. Wickliffe took an active part, by public addresses, in preparing the people of that part of Kentucky in which he was then known, to support a declaration of war, and to take a share in the struggle worthy of her renown for courage and patriotism. After war had been declared in 1812, he entered the service as a volunteer, but was soon after appointed aid to General

Winlock. He had been chosen to represent Nelson county in the legislature, which met in December, 1812. This was an important session. Kentucky had responded, with her usual alacrity, to the call of the country. During the preceding summer, great numbers of volunteers had left their homes for the hardships and perils of the northwestern campaign. The general government having failed, in a great measure, to provide for their wants, the legislature threw open the treasury of the State, and, at the same time that they devoted her revenues to the public service, pledged the lives of her sons to the cause of the nation.

While this legislature was in session, came the news of that dreadful disaster at the Raisin, which covered the State with mourning. The two houses requested the venerable Governor Shelby, then in the executive chair, to take command of the Kentuckians, and lead them to victory and vengeance. Of all these measures for the vigorous prosecution of the war, Mr. Wickliffe was the zealous and efficient advocate. His re-election in 1813, was the best proof that his constituents approved his legislative conduct.

When Governor Shelby issued his proclamation, inviting his fellow-citizens to meet him at Newport, Mr. Wickliffe again volunteered, and was appointed aid to General Caldwell, of the Kentucky troops, in which capacity he was present, and rendered valuable service, at the battle of the Thames. After that battle he returned to Kentucky, and served in the ensuing session of the legislature. He then withdrew from public life, being under the necessity of providing for a family, by undivided attention to his professional business. In 1820, he was again elected to the legislature. In the session of that year the commonwealth bank was chartered. Mr. Wickliffe made an able speech against that measure, basing his opposition to it not only upon constitutional ground, but also upon the evils and dangers of the paper system. He continued a member of the legislature until his election to Congress in 1822. In 1825, when the choice of a president devolved upon the house of representatives, Mr. Wickliffe, in opposition to most of his colleagues, voted for General Jackson, in accordance with the wishes of a large majority of the people whom he represented. He preferred General Jackson to Mr. Adams, from his personal knowledge of their characters, as well as of their views in relation to the fundamental principles of the federal government. His re-election to Congress, by the unusually large majority of two thousand votes, was a decisive proof of the approbation of his constituents. He continued to represent the same district in Congress until 1833, when the pressure of domestic cares and professional

business compelled him once more to retire from public life. During his ten years' service in the councils of the nation, his reputation steadily rose as a debater and a man of business. He was for several years chairman of the important committee of public lands, and was chosen by the house one of the managers of the impeachment of Judge Peck, in which capacity he appeared before the senate and made one of the ablest speeches reported in the proceedings of that celebrated trial.

Mr. Wickliffe was not long permitted to remain in retirement. The same year in which he left Congress, he was called upon by the people of Nelson county to represent them in the legislature. In the session of 1834, he was chosen speaker of the house of representatives. At a subsequent session Mr. Wickliffe drafted, supported, and carried through the legislature, in the face of violent opposition, the bill establishing the present jury system of Kentucky.

Scarcely had he left the legislature, when, in 1836, he was chosen lieutenant-governor of Kentucky, by which he became president of the senate. His commanding person, dignified manners, and prompt decision, well qualify him to preside over a deliberative body. In 1839, by the death of Governor Clarke, he became the acting governor of the commonwealth, and discharged the duties of that high office with ability, integrity, and to the general satisfaction of the public.

In 1841, he was called by Mr. Tyler to a seat in his cabinet, as postmaster-general of the United States.

Since his retirement from that office, he has been an active politician, and his influence is vast in his native district. Mr. Wickliffe is an able lawyer, and a fluent, though not a brilliant orator.

It is not often that the same man is known to achieve very high distinction both in the field and in the cabinet. The qualifications of an able and daring soldier are so diverse from those which we generally attribute to the statesman, that when, as in the instances of Washington and Jackson, we recognise the very highest kind of ability in both departments, it occasions a sort of surprise. In General Jackson's case, we remember distinctly, that his success as a military commander, and that energy and decision which he exhibited in extraordinary emergencies, were urged against his election by his political opponents as positive disqualifications; and the people were warned of the danger of electing a "military chieftain" to the presidency. But the result showed that he was not less efficient in the cabinet than in the field. Mr. Wickliffe's talents were of the same order.

James K. Polk

JAMES KNOX POLK.

James Knox Polk, the eleventh president of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, on the 2d of November, 1795. His father, Samuel Polk, was a plain, hard-working farmer.

Immediately after the close of the Revolution, a strong tide of emigration set out from Mecklenburg and the adjoining counties, and flowing over the mountains, rolled down upon the ranges of grassy hills, the undulating plains, the extensive reaches of grazing land, and the fertile valleys of Tennessee. Attracted by the glowing accounts, given by the first settlers and adventurers, of the beautiful daughter of his native State, Samuel Polk formed a determination to remove thither with his family; and if honesty of purpose, enterprise, and industry could accomplish that end, to achieve a competence for himself, and those who looked up to him for support and protection.

From one cause or another the fulfilment of his design was postponed till the autumn of the year 1806, when, accompanied by his wife and children, he followed the path of emigration to the rich valley of the Duck river, one of the principal tributaries of the Tennessee. Here, in the midst of the wilderness, in a tract of country erected in the following year into the county of Maury, he established his new home.

Having purchased a quantity of land, Samuel Polk employed himself in its cultivation; following, at intervals, the occupation of a surveyor. By dint of patient industry and economy, and by his untiring and energetic perseverance, he acquired a fortune equal to his wishes and his wants. Respected as one of the first pioneers of Maury, and esteemed as a useful citizen and an estimable man, he

finally closed his life at Columbia, in 1827. His wife, a most excellent and pious woman, afterward married a gentleman by the name of Eden.

Her son James passed his boyhood in the humble position in life which his parents occupied. He was by no means a stranger to what—unless, as in his case, accompanied by a happy and contented heart—is the drudgery of daily toil. He assisted his father in the management of his farm, and was his almost constant companion in his surveying excursions. Frequently absent for weeks together, treading the dense forests and traversing the rough canebrakes which then covered the face of the country, they were exposed to all the changes of the weather, and the dangers and vicissitudes of a life in the woods. On these occasions, it was the duty of James to take care of the pack-horses and camp equipage, and to prepare the scanty and frugal meals of the surveying party. When a lad, he was strongly inclined to study, and often busied himself with the mathematical calculations of his father. He was very fond of reading, and was of a reflective turn of mind.

In the infancy of the State of Tennessee, as is always the case in new settlements, the opportunities of instruction were quite limited. The father of young Polk was not in affluent circumstances, though able to give all his children a good education. He regarded with favour the natural bent of his son's mind toward study, and kept him pretty constantly at school. Though afflicted for many years by a painful affection, from which he was only relieved by a surgical operation, James had been completely successful in mastering the English studies usually taught, when his health began to give way. Fearing that his constitution had become so much weakened as to unfit him altogether for a sedentary life, his father, not without many an earnest remonstrance from his son, placed him with a merchant, with the view of fitting him for commercial pursuits. This was a severe blow to James. All his dearest hopes seemed about to be prostrated for ever. He had no taste for the new duties that devolved on him, and their performance was irksome to him in the extreme. He had an antipathy, of which he could not divest himself, to the mercantile profession. After remaining a few weeks with the merchant, James obtained the permission of his father, by much entreaty and persuasion, to return home; and, in the month of July, 1813, he was placed under the tuition of the Rev. Dr. Henderson. Subsequently he was sent to Murfreesborough Academy, then under the superintendence of Mr. Samuel P. Black, one of the most celebrated classical teachers in Middle Tennessee.

Henceforward there were no obstacles in the way of his obtaining the education he so ardently desired. In less than two years and a half he prepared himself thoroughly for an advanced class in college; and in the autumn of 1815, being then in his twentieth year, he entered the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, at the beginning of the sophomore year. This venerable institution, at which so many of the most distinguished statesmen, and the most eminent divines, in the southern part of the Union, have been educated, was then under the charge of the Rev. Dr. Joseph Caldwell.

At the university, Mr. Polk was most exemplary in the performance of all his duties, not only as a member of college, but also of the literary society to which he belonged. He was punctual and prompt in every exercise, and never absent from recitation or any of the religious services of the institution. Of the exact sciences he was fond, and he was an excellent linguist. At each semi-annual examination he bore away the highest honours, and at the close of the junior year the first distinction was awarded to him and Ex-Governor William D. Moseley, of Florida. He graduated in June, 1818, with the highest distinction, which was assigned to him alone, as the best scholar in both the mathematics and classics, and delivered the Latin salutatory oration.

Mr. Polk did not forget his Alma Mater amid the busy scenes, the turmoil and confusion of his active life; nor did she lose sight of one who reflected so much credit upon her, in every station that he filled. At the annual commencement in June, 1847, the honorary degree of doctor of laws was conferred upon him, together with John Y. Mason, late secretary of the navy, of the class of 1816, and Willie P. Mangum, of the senate of the United States, and a member of the class of 1815.

When Mr. Polk left the university, his health was considerably impaired by his constant and unremitting application to his studies. But a few months of relaxation and respite from study were sufficient to fully restore him; and the choice of a profession was then to be considered and decided. This was not at all difficult. His thoughts had long been directed toward the law, and each succeeding year had served to confirm and strengthen the desire which he had half formed ere the time came for serious reflection. At the beginning of the year 1819, he entered the office of Felix Grundy, at Nashville. Mr. Grundy was then in the zenith of his fame—at the head of the Tennessee bar—enjoying the professional honours and rewards which continued to flow liberally upon him—and with the laurels he had won on the floor of the house of representatives of the United

States in defence of the war measures of President Madison, blooming freshly on his brow. In him, Mr. Polk found a legal preceptor whose rich stores of learning were freely opened for his profit and instruction.

Beside being the favourite student of Mr. Grundy, it was the good fortune of Mr. Polk, during his residence at Nashville, to attract the attention and to win the esteem of one who bound his friends to him with hooks of steel, and whose favour could not be too highly prized; of one whose influence over him, powerful though it was, was at all times voluntarily and cheerfully acknowledged—of Andrew Jackson, the gallant defender of New Orleans, who was always warmly attached to Mr. Polk, and who, looking upon him as in some sort a *protégé*, and took a deep interest in his political advancement.

Within two years from the time he entered the office of Mr. Grundy, Mr. Polk had made sufficient progress in his legal studies to entitle him to an examination; and, near the close of 1820, he was regularly admitted to the bar. He now returned to Maury county, and established himself in practice at Columbia, among the companions of his boyhood, who had grown up with him to man's estate, —among those who had known and esteemed him from his earliest years. His advantages were great, in consequence of the connection of his family, by the ties of blood or of friendship, with most of the old inhabitants and their descendants. His success, therefore, was equal to his fondest hopes.

Mr. Polk remained at the bar, it may be said, up to the time of his election as governor of Tennessee, but for several years he devoted himself exclusively to the laborious duties of his calling, constantly adding to his practice and his reputation, and annually reaping a rich harvest of professional emoluments. Among his law partners were Aaron V. Brown, of Pulaski, for some years a representative in Congress from the sixth district, (Tennessee,) and governor of the State from 1845 to 1847, and Gideon J. Pillow, a major-general in the army during the war with Mexico.

The father of Mr. Polk belonged to the Jeffersonian school of politics: he supported its founder in the great contest of 1800, and up to the close of his life was the firm and consistent advocate of Republican principles. The associations of the son, in early life, and while he was reading law, naturally inclined him to adopt the same opinions.

It is rarely the case, in this country, that the politician and the lawyer are not united in one and the same person; and Mr. Polk was not an exception to this general rule. As soon as he became a

voter he attached himself to the Republican party, and, after his admission to the bar, was an active participant in the political contests of that day. His style and manner as a public speaker were calculated to win the favour of a popular assembly, and he was often sent for many miles from his home to address the meetings of his party friends. His reputation in this respect was extensive.

Possessing all the advantages of mind and disposition so necessary to success in an aspirant for political honours; rooted in the affections of a large circle of admiring friends; the hope of the party to which he belonged, he entered public life at an early age. His first employment in this character was that of chief clerk to the house of representatives of the Tennessee legislature; and, in the summer of 1823, in accordance not more with his own desire than with the wishes of his friends, he took the stump against the former member of that body from Maury. A most formidable opposition was encountered, but after an animated canvass he secured his election by a heavy majority.

He remained in the legislature for two successive years, being regarded as one of the most talented and promising members.

On the 1st day of January, 1824, Mr. Polk was married to Sarah Childress, the daughter of Joel Childress, a wealthy and enterprising merchant of Rutherford county, Tennessee.

Mrs. Polk was well fitted to adorn any station. To the charms of a fine person she united intellectual accomplishments of a high order. Sweetness of disposition, gracefulness and ease of manner, and beauty of mind, were happily blended in her character. Her unfailing courtesy and her winning deportment were remarked by every one who saw her presiding at the White House.

In the spring of 1825, Mr. Polk offered himself to the electors of the sixth or Duck river district, in which he resided, as their candidate for Congress. At this time the subject of internal improvements was attracting unusual attention in Tennessee, owing, probably, to the examinations recently made by the board of engineers, under the act of 1824, of the country between the Potomac and Ohio rivers. Indeed, it was the only political question of importance—except the manner in which General Jackson, whom Mr. Polk had ardently supported, had been defrauded, as was alleged by his friends, of the presidency—that was then agitated or discussed; for, although there had been several candidates voted for at the late presidential election, they all claimed to belong to the same party.

Although Mr. Polk, like many other young men belonging to the Republican party, was disposed, in 1825, to adopt the impression

that the authority to construct works of internal improvement was comprehended in the money-power conferred by the constitution, further reflection and experience caused him to change his opinion.

At the August election in 1825, he was chosen a member of Congress, by a flattering vote. That he discharged his duties to the entire satisfaction of those whom he represented, is evidenced by the fact, that he was repeatedly returned by the same constituency, for fourteen years in succession, from 1825 to 1839. In the latter year he voluntarily withdrew from another contest, in which his success was not even questionable, in order to become a candidate for the office of governor of his adopted State. Mr. Polk first took his seat in the house of representatives, as a member of the nineteenth Congress, in December, 1825; being, with one or two exceptions, the youngest member of that body. The same habits of laborious application which had previously characterized him, were now displayed on the floor of the house and in the committee-room. He was punctual and prompt in the performance of every duty.

Immediately after the organization of the two houses of Congress, in December, 1825, the peculiar circumstances attending the election of Mr. Adams, through the influence and aid of Mr. Clay, were brought up in review. Amendments to the constitution were proposed in the senate by Mr. Benton, of Missouri, providing for a direct vote by the people, in districts, for president, and dispensing with the electoral colleges; and by Mr. Duffie, of South Carolina, in the house, authorizing the electors to be chosen by districts, and containing provisions which would prevent the choice of president, in future, from devolving on the house of representatives. Mr. Polk made his *début* as a speaker on this question, and advocated the amendment of the constitution, in such a manner as to give the choice of president and vice-president directly to the people. As one of the friends of General Jackson, he entered warmly into the subject, and his speech was characterized by what was with him an unusual degree of animation in addressing a deliberative body.

During the whole period of General Jackson's administration, as long as he retained a seat on the floor, he was one of its leading supporters, and at times, and on certain questions of paramount importance, its chief reliance. In the hour of trial he was never found wanting, or from his post.

The same cordial and unhesitating support which Mr. Polk gave to the administration of General Jackson, he also yielded to that of Mr. Van Buren. Although, on account of his position as the speaker of the house, he took no part in the discussions, he approved of all

the prominent measures recommended by Mr. Van Buren, including the cession of the public lands to the States, the pre-emption law, and the independent treasury, and exerted his influence to secure their adoption.

In regard to the tariff question, and the kindred measure of distribution for many years inseparably connected with it, his views were repeatedly expressed. In his report as chairman of the select committee on the surplus in the treasury, made at the session of 1827–8, he declared his preferences for a revenue tariff.

Although the vote of Tennessee, given at the presidential election in 1828, was almost unanimous in favour of General Jackson, indications of dissatisfaction were manifested by some of the most prominent members of the Republican party in that State, at an early period of his administration.

As the time approached for the selection of his successor, the elements of discord and disaffection were plainly visible. His preferences for Mr. Van Buren were well known, as they were never disguised. But in Tennessee, a large portion of the Republican party were in favour of Hugh L. White, an estimable and talented citizen of that State, then one of its senators in Congress.

In the house of representatives, the White interest was represented by John Bell, one of the colleagues of Mr. Polk, and between whom there had long existed a sort of rivalship. Both claimed to be the sincere friends of General Jackson, and both approved of the veto of the United States Bank, and the removal of the deposits. But Mr. Bell was in favour of the incorporation of another bank, while Mr. Polk, in accordance with what had now become one of the cardinal doctrines of the party to which he belonged, avowed uncompromising hostility to any such institution. In June, 1834, the speaker of the house, Andrew Stevenson, of Virginia, resigned his seat in Congress, in consequence of his nomination as minister to Great Britain. Mr. Polk was instantly selected by the majority of the Democratic members, as the administration candidate for the vacant position. But the friends of Judge White refused to support him, and voted for Mr. Bell, who, with the aid of the Whig members, was elected over Mr. Polk on the tenth ballot.

Shortly after the adjournment of Congress, Mr. Van Buren was regularly put in nomination as the Republican candidate for president, by the unanimous voice of the national convention assembled at Baltimore in May, 1835. Mr. Polk took no part in calling or recommending this convention. It was entirely a new movement, and originated mainly in a desire to organize the Republican party

in a most efficient manner, in anticipation of a powerful effort on the part of the opponents of the administration to defeat their candidates. After the nominations were made, and received with an almost universal expression of approbation in every State in the Union, Tennessee alone excepted, Mr. Polk announced his determination not to separate himself from the Democratic party of the nation. Messrs. Carroll, Blount, Grundy, and Johnson agreed with him in sentiment, and active preparations were immediately made to carry the State at the gubernatorial and congressional elections, in August, 1835. But the time proved too short to counteract the impressions which had been formed, and to change the direction of the popular current. The Whigs united with the friends of Judge White, and succeeded in defeating Governor Carroll, who was nominated for re-election, and all the administration candidates for Congress, save Mr. Polk and Mr. Johnson.

When the members of the twenty-fourth Congress assembled at the capitol for their first regular session, in December, 1835, it was found that the friends of the administration were largely in the majority. Mr. Polk was selected by general consent as their candidate for speaker, as an act of justice on account of the circumstances under which he was defeated the previous year. Mr. Bell was once more the opposing candidate, but he received eighty-four votes, while one hundred and thirty-two were given for Mr. Polk. At the first, or extra session of the twenty-fifth Congress, held in September, 1837, the same candidates were pitted against each other—Mr. Bell being at that time thoroughly identified with the opposition. Parties were more equally divided in this Congress, but Mr. Polk was again chosen over his opponent by thirteen majority.

As the speaker of the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth Congress, Mr. Polk occupied the chair of the house during five sessions. It was his fortune to fill this distinguished position when party feelings were excited to an unusual degree. During the first session, more appeals were taken from his decisions than were ever before known; but he was uniformly sustained by the house, and frequently by the most prominent members of the opposition. He was courteous and affable toward all who approached him, and in his manner, as the presiding officer, dignity and urbanity were appropriately blended.

At the close of the twenty-fourth Congress, in March, 1837, a unanimous vote of thanks to the speaker was passed by the house.

In adjourning the house on the 4th of March, 1839, and terminating for ever his connection with the body, of which he had been

so long a member, Mr. Polk delivered a farewell address of more than ordinary length, but characterized by deep feeling.

Still higher honours awaited Mr. Polk. His long and arduous service in the national representation, and more especially the circumstances attending the presidential canvass of 1836, had familiarized the people of Tennessee with his name and character.

At the earnest request of his friends, Mr. Polk consented to become the candidate of the Democrats of Tennessee, at the August election in 1839, for the office of governor. It was very evident that none but the strongest man in the party could enter into the canvass with any thing like a fair prospect before him; and it was exceedingly doubtful whether he could be successful.

Mr. Polk accepted the nomination, which was tendered to him by the unanimous consent of his Republican friends, in the fall of 1838, and at a barbecue in Murfreesborough publicly declared himself a candidate. He immediately took the stump, but was only able to make a few speeches that fall, as it was necessary for him to repair to Washington in time for the opening of the session of Congress. At the close of the session, in the spring of 1839, he hastened home without delay, and his voice was soon heard uttering its appeals. The canvass was warm and spirited. The State had for years been in the hands of the opposition, and they now rallied with enthusiasm and alacrity in support of Governor Cannon, the incumbent of the office, who was a candidate for re-election.

The exertions of Mr. Polk during this canvass were rewarded with marked and complete success. He was elected over Governor Cannon by upward of twenty-five hundred majority, and on the 14th of October took the oath of office at Nashville, and entered upon the discharge of the executive duties. On this occasion, he delivered an address, which is considered to be one of the ablest documents that ever came from his pen.

The administration of the State government by Mr. Polk was satisfactory to the public, and his course as chief-magistrate was well calculated to harmonize the party of which, by the death of his old friend and preceptor, Mr. Grundy, in 1840, he had become the acknowledged head.

The term of office of Mr. Polk expired in October, 1841, but at the August election of that year, he was again a candidate. His prospects were dark. In 1840 the Harrison electoral ticket had succeeded in the State by more than twelve thousand majority. To overcome this heavy vote was impossible; but Mr. Polk entered upon the canvass with his accustomed spirit and ability. His competitor

was James C. Jones, a most effective speaker, and decidedly the most popular man at that time in the Whig party of the State.

Personal good feeling on the part of the opposing candidates characterized this contest, as it had that of 1839. Mr. Polk frankly and cordially met Mr. Jones on the stump and travelled in company with him. All the efforts of Mr. Polk proved unavailing. The politics of the State were for the time firmly fixed in opposition to his own. He was defeated by the reduction of the Whig majority to about three thousand. In 1843 he was once more a candidate opposed to Governor Jones, but the latter was re-elected by nearly four thousand majority.

On leaving the executive chair of Tennessee, Mr. Polk returned to private life. He possessed a competence—all that he needed or desired—which enabled him to be liberal in the bestowment of his charities, and to dispense a generous hospitality to his numerous friends.

From the time of the defeat of Mr. Van Buren, in 1840, up to within a few weeks previous to the assembling of the national Democratic convention at Baltimore, in May, 1844, public opinion in the Republican party seemed to be firmly fixed upon him as their candidate for re-election to the station which he had once filled. But in the month of April, 1844, a treaty was concluded under the auspices of President Tyler, between the representatives of the government of the United States and of the republic of Texas, providing for the annexation of the latter to the American confederacy. This measure, though long in contemplation, was fruitful in strife and dissension. Hitherto it had been conceded on every hand, that Mr. Van Buren and Mr. Clay ought to be, and would be, the rival candidates for the presidency in 1844; but now the political elements were thrown into complete confusion. The opinions of almost every public man in the United States were sought; and among others, Mr. Polk was addressed. He replied, arguing in favour of annexation.

Mr. Polk had previously been spoken of as a candidate for the vice-presidency of the United States. But few apprehended that his nomination for the presidency was so near at hand. In the midst of the agitation upon the subject of the annexation of Texas, the national Democratic convention assembled at Baltimore, (May, 1844.) On the ninth ballot, Mr. Polk was unanimously nominated for the presidency of the United States. George M. Dallas was placed upon the same ticket as a candidate for vice-president. Both candidates were in favour of the immediate annexation of Texas. At the

election in the fall of the same year, these candidates were elected by a decisive majority.

On the 4th of March, 1845, Mr. Polk was inaugurated president of the United States. The sentiments of the inaugural address were such as were expected by the Democratic party. The cabinet was organized as follows:—Secretary of state, James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania; secretary of the treasury, Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi; secretary of war, William L. Marcy, of New York; secretary of the navy, George Bancroft, of Massachusetts; attorney-general, John Y. Mason, of Virginia; postmaster-general, Cave Johnson, of Tennessee.

On the 15th of June, 1846, Mr. Buchanan succeeded in negotiating a treaty with the British minister, settling the difficulty in regard to the limits of Oregon Territory by fixing upon the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude as the northern boundary. The settlement of this vexatious dispute was a matter of congratulation on both sides of the Atlantic.

But in the mean time, events of more thrilling interest had occurred. The annexation of Texas had given great offence to Mexico, and she refused to recognise the independence of that State. The Mexican people clamoured for war, and President Herrera, who was in favour of a pacific policy, was compelled to resign. General Paredes was elected in his stead.

President Polk authorized an inquiry of the Mexican government if it would be willing to receive a minister extraordinary, invested with ample powers for a termination of difficulties. To this request the Mexican Congress acceded, asking, meanwhile, that during the proposed negotiations, the American Gulf squadron should be withdrawn from Vera Cruz. This being done, Mr. Slidell, the American envoy, proceeded to Mexico. Unfortunately, this was about the time that General Paredes assumed command, and the unsettled condition of the country, together with other events, caused that functionary to withdraw assent for the intended negotiations, on the pretence that as Mr. Slidell had been authorized to attend to the settlement of former difficulties concerning Mexican outrages, his mission was not specially confined to the Texas question. On the 1st of March, 1846, Mr. Slidell requested of the Mexican government an acknowledgment of his official character. This was refused, and he returned to the United States.

Meanwhile President Polk determined on sending an armed force into the territory of Texas, in order to protect it from an anticipated invasion.

On the 21st of March, 1845, General Zachary Taylor was appointed commander-in-chief of the "Corps of Observation," with orders to hold the forces under his command, ready to enter Texas whenever directed. On the 15th of June he was apprized of the probable speedy acceptance of the terms of annexation by the Texan Congress, and received orders of a confidential nature to enter the annexed territory.

In August, General Taylor marched with all his forces to Corpus Christi, where he remained until March 11th of the next year, when, under instructions from the war department, he broke up his camp and pushed forward for the Rio Grande. At the Arroyo Colorado he was met by a party of stragglers, who appeared disposed to oppose his crossing; but no opposition was actually offered. On the 24th, he took undisputed possession of Point Isabel. Previous to this he had been met by a deputation, protesting against his march, and threatening war if it were persisted in. Some buildings at the point were fired by the Mexicans, but the conflagration was arrested by Colonel Twiggs. Leaving at this place four hundred and fifty men, with ten cannon and ample supplies of powder and ball, under Major John Munroe, General Taylor continued his advance. On the 28th he erected the national flag on the banks of the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras. On the following day, Brigadier-general Worth, with his staff, crossed the river, with despatches to the municipal authorities. He was met by a Mexican delegation, the reception of the papers declined, and his request of an interview with the American consul refused.

This unpropitious affair was but the commencement of difficulties. Immediately after, all communication with General Taylor was closed, and symptoms of approaching war daily multiplied. In order to prepare for it, General Taylor commenced the erection of a fort, to be defended by extensive works. More than one thousand men were employed upon it night and day. This redoubt, under the name of Fort Brown, subsequently became famous for its successful defence against the bombardment of the enemy, and for the death of its defender, Major Jacob Brown.

The death of Colonel Truman Cross, the first victim of the Mexican war, occurred on the 10th of April. This officer was in the habit of riding out every morning for the purpose of exercise, and on this occasion was observed to remain from camp longer than usual. This circumstance occasioned many fears in camp, especially as the country was known to abound in numbers of lawless rancheros, who respected neither friend nor foe. Small parties were despatched in

every direction, but without being able to obtain any information of him. General Taylor wrote to the authorities of Matamoras, but they avowed their entire ignorance of the colonel's fate. Eleven days passed in a state of suspense, mingled with the faint hope that, notwithstanding the protestations of the Mexicans, he was a prisoner in Matamoras. On the 21st, the melancholy truth was ascertained. A straggler entered camp, and stated that the body of an American officer lay at some distance off. He guided a party to a thicket, in which lay the colonel's remains. The spot was at a short distance from a road leading near the river. The body had been stripped, and the flesh torn from it by vultures. The remains were recognised principally by the teeth, scalp, the stock, and one shoulder-strap.

When news of this event reached the United States it caused much excitement. All felt it to be but the prelude to that wholesale slaughter inseparable from the fearful policy of a national appeal to arms.

Previous to this (April 11th) General Ampudia entered Matamoras with large reinforcements, and assumed supreme command. The occasion was one of exultation to the inhabitants. On the following day he addressed a note to General Taylor, requesting him to break up his camp and march for the Rio Neuces within twenty-four hours.

In his answer to the above, General Taylor replied, "The instructions under which I am acting, will not permit me to retrograde from the position I now occupy. In view of the relations between our respective governments, and the individual suffering which may result, I regret the alternative which you offer; but at the same time wish it understood, that I shall by no means avoid such alternative, leaving the responsibility with those who rashly commence hostilities."

Ampudia did not attempt the enforcement of his threat, and General Taylor continued the strengthening of his fortifications.

The death of Lieutenant Porter, who was killed (April 17th) by some Mexicans while searching for the body of Colonel Cross, tended to exasperate the Americans still further against the enemy.

On the same day, (April 17th,) two American schooners bound for Matamoras were warned off the coast by General Taylor, and the mouth of the Rio Grande declared to be in a state of blockade. This proceeding drew forth an angry letter from Ampudia, who threatened serious results in case of its being persisted in. The reply of the general was firm but temperate. He entered at length into all the circumstances of mutual importance which had transpired

since his march from Corpus Christi, asserting the blockade to be but a necessary consequence of the state of war declared to exist by Ampudia himself.

Immediately after the blockade of the Rio Grande, parties of Mexicans commenced crossing the river, spreading themselves so as to occupy various positions along its eastern bank. These crossings took place both above and below General Taylor's camp; and, apprehensive of being surrounded by an overwhelming force, he despatched a reconnoitring party in each direction. One of these, conducted by Captain Thornton, was captured by the Mexican forces.

From this time the enemy threw off the reserve which had hitherto characterized their movements, and crossing the river in large numbers, spread themselves between Fort Brown and Point Isabel. To the American army, this was the most gloomy period of the war; and when intelligence of its position reached the United States it created a sensation, and deep anxiety which showed how intimately the feelings of the people were twined round that distant band. But still General Taylor maintained his position, employing his whole army in the strengthening of his works; and at Point Isabel not only did Major Munroe employ all the means which had been left with him, but also landed the crews of the vessels in the harbour, and armed them as soldiers.

At this juncture, Captain Walker reached Point Isabel with some Texas rangers. As his merit was well known to the major, he was ordered to advance some distance beyond the works, and, if possible, open a communication with Fort Brown. With seventy-five men he rode to a position about fourteen miles distant; and soon after, (28th,) on learning that General Taylor was surrounded, he determined to open a communication. After riding some miles, he came suddenly upon a large Mexican force, which he estimated at fifteen hundred, drawn up across the road. They were nearly all mounted. The captain ordered his men into some neighbouring chaparral; but before this could be effected, the enemy charged, and as most of the Americans were but raw recruits they fled in confusion. A running fight ensued; the captain was pursued to within cannon-shot of Point Isabel and his men dispersed. The loss of the Mexicans was about thirty.

On arriving at camp, Captain Walker offered to renew his effort to open a communication, provided four men would accompany him, alleging that the smaller the number on such an expedition the more chance of escape in case of an attack. Such a proposition was regarded as desperate; but on six men volunteering, the major granted

the request, and the intrepid ranger set out. By his intimate knowledge of the road, he was enabled to elude the enemy and reach Fort Brown in safety.

As soon as General Taylor had received information of the condition of Point Isabel, he determined to march with his army to its relief, leaving Major Jacob Brown with six hundred men and a few cannon to defend the river fort. He marched on the 1st, and reached the main depot on the following day. The general's march was a source of unbounded exultation to the Mexicans. It was reported in their military orders as a retreat, and the ruin of the invading army began to be confidently expected.

As a preliminary to this, the destruction of Fort Brown was to be accomplished. Accordingly, on the 3d, a battery stationed in Matamoras opened its fire upon the works, and continued a brisk cannonade all day. It was answered by two eighteen-pounders. At seven in the evening the firing stopped, but was renewed at nine, and continued until midnight. One American was killed, but very little injury done on either side. Long before night Major Brown ceased firing in consequence of the scarcity of ammunition.

The cannonade had been heard at Point Isabel, and anxious to know the result, General Taylor despatched Captain May with about one hundred men, among whom was Walker and ten rangers, to Fort Brown. They set out in the evening, passed the enemy's camp under cover of the night and halted by some chaparral within seven miles of the fort. Captain Walker then proceeded with his party, arrived at the works, and on announcing his name was admitted. He was detained so long that May was obliged to return without him; but on the 5th, to the great joy of General Taylor and the army he arrived safely. Within some miles of the point, he had met a body of lancers, whom he charged and drove some miles; his escape, however, from the Mexican army, whose scouts were in active watch for him, seems little less than miraculous. He reported to the general the gratifying intelligence that Major Brown was still confidently maintaining his position.

At daylight on the 5th, the garrison at Fort Brown observed a battery in a field to the east, which soon opened its fire. The Americans were thus placed between two fires, which continued, with slight intermission, all day. They were renewed on the 6th, on the morning of which day Major Brown was mortally wounded by a bomb-shell, and the command devolved on Captain Hawkins. In the evening that officer was summoned to surrender, and on refusing, the firing was commenced with greater vigour than ever, ceasing

only when, on the 8th, another distant noise assured friend and foe that Generals Taylor and Arista had met in general battle. On the 9th it recommenced, but was finally terminated by the defeat of Arista.

Upon the 8th of May, General Taylor at the head of his small army, numbering twenty-three hundred, came in sight of six thousand Mexicans, at Palo Alto. He had left Point Isabel on the evening of the 7th, and after marching some miles encamped in battle array. The march was resumed next morning. He thus describes the battle.

"About noon, when our advance of cavalry had reached the water-hole of 'Palo Alto,' the Mexican troops were reported in our front, and were soon discovered occupying the road in force. I ordered a halt on reaching the water, with a view to rest and refresh the men and form deliberately our line of battle. The Mexican line was now plainly visible across the prairie, and about three-quarters of a mile distant. Their left, which was composed of a heavy force of cavalry, occupied the road, resting upon a thicket of chaparral, while masses of infantry were discovered in succession on the right, greatly outnumbering our own force.

"Our line of battle was now formed in the following order, commencing on the extreme right: 5th infantry, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel McIntosh; Major Ringgold's artillery; 3d infantry, commanded by L. M. Morris; two eighteen-pounders, commanded by Lieutenant Churchill, 3d artillery; 4th infantry, commanded by Major G. W. Allen; the 3d and 4th regiments, composed the 3d brigade, under command of Lieutenant-colonel Garland, and all the above corps, together with two squadrons of dragoons, under Captains Ker and May, composed the right wing, under the orders of Colonel Twiggs. The left was formed by the battalion of artillery, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Childs, Captain Duncan's light artillery, and the 8th infantry, under Captain Montgomery, all forming the 1st brigade, under command of Lieutenant-colonel Belknap. The train was parked near the water, under directions of Captains Crossman and Myers, and protected by Captain Ker's squadron.

"About two o'clock, we took up the march by heads of columns in the direction of the enemy, the eighteen-pounder battery following the road. While the other columns were advancing, Lieutenant Blake, topographical engineers, volunteered a reconnoissance of the enemy's line, which was handsomely performed, and resulted in the discovery of at least two batteries of artillery in the intervals of their cavalry and infantry. These batteries were soon opened upon us, when I ordered the columns halted and deployed into line, and the

fire to be returned by all our artillery. The 8th infantry, on our extreme left, was thrown back to secure that flank. The first fires of the enemy did little execution, while our eighteen-pounders and Major Ringgold's artillery soon dispersed the cavalry which formed his left. Captain Duncan's battery, thrown forward in advance of the line, was doing good execution at this time. Captain May's squadron was now detached to support that battery and the left of our position. The Mexican cavalry, with two pieces of artillery, were now reported to be moving through the chaparral to our right, to threaten that flank, or make a demonstration against the train. The 5th infantry was immediately detached to check this movement, and supported by Lieutenant Ridgely, with a section of Major Ringgold's battery, and Captain Walker's company of volunteers, effectually repulsed the enemy—the 5th infantry repelling a charge of lancers, and the artillery doing great execution in their ranks. The 3d infantry was now detached to the right, as a still further security to that flank, yet threatened by the enemy. Major Ringgold, with the remaining section, kept up his fire from an advanced position, and was supported by the left infantry.

"The grass of the prairie had been accidentally fired by our artillery, and the volumes of smoke now partially concealed the armies from each other. As the enemy's left had evidently been driven back, and left the road free, and as the cannonade had been suspended, I ordered forward the eighteen-pounders on the road nearly to the position first occupied by the Mexican cavalry, and caused the 1st brigade to take up a new position, still on the left of the eighteen-pounder battery. The 5th was advanced from its former position, and occupied a point on the extreme right of the new line. The enemy made a change of position corresponding to our own, and after a suspension of nearly an hour, the action was resumed.

"The fire of artillery was now most destructive; openings were constantly made through the enemy's ranks by our fire, and the constancy with which the Mexican infantry sustained this severe cannonade was a theme of universal remark and admiration. Captain May's squadron was detached to make a demonstration on the left of the enemy's position, and suffered severely from the fire of artillery, to which it was for some time exposed.

"The 4th infantry, which had been ordered to support the eighteen-pounder battery, was exposed to a most galling fire of artillery, by which several men were killed, and Captain Page dangerously wounded. The enemy's fire was directed against our eighteen-pounder battery, and the guns under Major Ringgold in its vicinity. The Major him-

self, while coolly directing the fire of his pieces, was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded.

"In the mean time, the battalion under Lieutenant-colonel Child's had been brought up to support the artillery on our right. A strong demonstration of cavalry was now made by the enemy against this part of our line, and the column continued to advance under a severe fire from the eighteen-pounders. The battalion was instantly formed in square, and held ready to receive the charge of cavalry, but when the advancing squadrons were within close range, a deadly fire of canister from the eighteen-pounders dispersed them. A brisk fire of small arms was now opened upon the square, by which one officer (Lieutenant Luther, 2d artillery) was slightly wounded; but a well-directed volley from the front of the square silenced all further firing from the enemy in this quarter. It was now nearly dark, and the action was closed on the right of our line, the enemy having been completely driven back from his position, and foiled in every attempt against it.

"While the above was going forward on our right, and under our own eye, the enemy had made a serious attempt against the left of our line. Captain Duncan instantly perceived the movement, and, by the bold and brilliant manœuvring of his battery, completely repulsed several successive efforts of the enemy to advance in force upon our left flank. Supported in succession by the 8th infantry, and by Captain Ker's squadron of dragoons, he gallantly held the enemy at bay, and finally drove him, with immense loss, from the field. The action here and along the whole line continued until dark, when the enemy retired into the chaparral in rear of his position.

"Our loss this day was nine killed, forty-four wounded, and two missing.

"Our own force engaged is shown to have been one hundred and seventy-seven officers, and two thousand one hundred and eleven men; aggregate, two thousand two hundred and eighty-eight. The Mexican force, according to the statements of their own officers, taken prisoners in the affair of the 9th, was not less than six thousand regular troops, with ten pieces of artillery, and probably exceeding that number—the irregular force not known. Their loss was not less than two hundred killed, and four hundred wounded—probably greater. This estimate is very moderate, and formed upon the number actually counted on the field, and upon the reports of their own officers."

Early on the following morning, the enemy were observed moving

toward the Rio Grande. The battle had by no means been decisive; and they were evidently seeking a more advantageous position, in order to renew it. For this the American commander had carefully prepared. The wounded had been relieved on the previous night, the troops refreshed, and every thing put in readiness for battle; in addition to which a council of officers had resolved to continue the march at all hazards.

The battle of Resaca de la Palma is thus described by an American officer:

"At two o'clock P.M., we found the enemy drawn up in great force, occupying a ravine which our road crossed; with thick chaparral, or thorny bushes, on either side before it reached the ravine, and a pond of water on either side where it crossed the ravine, constituting a defile. They were seven thousand strong; we fifty-four weaker than on the previous day. The general ordered an immediate attack by all the troops, except the first brigade, which was kept in reserve; and soon the rattling fire of musketry, mingled with the heavy sound of artillery, announced the commencement of the action. The enemy had chosen his position, which he considered impregnable—was vastly superior to us in numbers, and had ten pieces of artillery planted in the defile, which swept the road with grape, and which it was absolutely necessary for us to take before they could be beaten. These pieces were flanked on either side by a regiment of brave veteran troops from Tampico, and we were obliged to stand an awful shower of grape and bullet before a charge could reach them. The battle had lasted some two hours with great fury on both sides, and many heroic deeds had been done, but no serious impression made, when General Taylor sent for Captain May of the second dragoons, and told him he must take that battery with his squadron of dragoons, if he lost every man. May instantly placed himself at the head of his men, and setting off at full speed, with cheers and shouts, dashed into the defile, where he was greeted with an overwhelming discharge of grape and bullets, which nearly annihilated his first and second platoons, but he was seen, unhurt, darting like lightning through this murderous hailstorm, and, in a second, he and his men drove away or cut to pieces the artillerists.

"The speed of his horses was so great, however, that they passed through the battery and were halted in its rear. There, turning, he charged back, and was just in time to rescue a Mexican general officer, who would not leave his guns, and was parrying the strokes of one of his men. The officer handed his sword to May, announced himself as General La Vega, and gave his parole. May turned him

over to an officer, and galloping back to General Taylor, reported that he had captured the enemy's battery, and the gallant General La Vega, bravely defending it, whose sword he had the honour to present his commanding officer. The general was extremely gratified, and felt no doubt that a blow had been given, from which it would be difficult for the enemy to recover. . . . . Colonel Belknap, leading his regiment into the thickest of the fight, seized a Mexican standard, and waving it over his head, dashed on in front of his men, until his horse stumbled over some dead bodies and threw him. Being a heavy man, he was helped on his horse by a soldier, who in the act received a ball through his lungs, and at the same moment a shot carried away the Mexican flag, leaving but the handle with the colonel. He dashed ahead with that, however, and his regiment carried every thing before it. At this moment the Mexicans gave way entirely, and, throwing down their arms, fled in every direction, leaving all their stores, munitions of war, arms, standards, &c. The killed, wounded, and prisoners, including those who were drowned in the Rio Grande, do not fall short of eighteen hundred—so that the enemy's loss in two days amounts to at least two thousand men, something more than the number we had in our army."

May's charge was the most brilliant event of this hard-fought battle. It was an opportunity for which the captain had been anxiously hoping; and riding in front of his horsemen, he called to them to follow. The next moment they were sweeping toward the enemy. Before being perceived by them, May was stopped by Lieutenant Ridgely, who was about firing in order to draw the shot of the enemy. This being done, May again dashed forward, and in a few minutes was by the muzzles of the cannon. Suddenly a tremendous discharge poured forth along the ranks of the intrepid horsemen, rolling horses and men headlong on the ground. But nothing could stop the survivors. Leaping over the cannon they drove the artillerists from their positions at the point of the sword. The batteries were defended by the celebrated Tampico veterans, hitherto regarded as invincible. They threw themselves furiously between their guns, and with their swords and bayonets fought hand to hand with the cavalry. One by one they sank beneath the weapons of their adversaries; and even when the regiment was broken and crushed, one of them endeavoured to sustain its honour by wrapping the flag around him in order to bear it way.

On the morning of this day, Lieutenant Blake, of the topographical engineers, was killed by the accidental discharge of one of his pistols. This officer was much beloved, and on the previous day had performed

a reconnoissance of the most daring valour. One who accompanied him gives the subjoined account of this feat:

"After the line of battle had been formed, General Taylor rode along it to survey his command. Every man was perfectly cool, and had they been about to take dinner, they could not have been more indifferent. At this time the general had not the slightest knowledge as to whether the enemy had any artillery or not. The long prairie grass prevented any one from distinguishing it, when masked by men in front of the pieces. What was to be done? It was an all-important point. Captain May was ordered to go forward with his squadron, reconnoitre the enemy, and, if possible, draw a fire from their artillery, but to no purpose; they took no notice of him. Lieutenant Blake then proposed to go forward alone and reconnoitre. I was close to him, and volunteered to accompany him. He consented, and we dashed forward to within *eighty yards of their line*, the whole army looking on us with astonishment. Here we had a full view. The lieutenant alighted from his horse, and, with his glass, surveyed the whole line, and handed it to me. After making a similar observation, I returned the glass. Just then two officers rode out toward us. I mentioned it to Blake, and requested him to mount. He quietly told me to draw a pistol on them. I did so, and they halted. Had they thought proper, they could have fired a volley from their main line and riddled us both. We then galloped along their line to its other end, there examined them again, and returned. Scarcely had Blake reported, when their batteries opened upon our line, and the work of destruction commenced. Our examination proved to be correct."

"The strength of our marching force on this day," says General Taylor, "was one hundred and seventy-three officers, and two thousand and forty-nine men—aggregate two thousand two hundred and twenty-two. The actual number engaged with the enemy did not exceed seventeen hundred. Our loss was three officers killed, and twelve wounded. Thirty-six men killed, and seventy-one wounded. * * * I have no accurate data from which to estimate the enemy's force on this day. He was known to have been reinforced after the action of the 8th, both by cavalry and infantry, and no doubt to an extent equal at least to his loss on that day. It is probable that six thousand men were opposed to us, in a position chosen by themselves, and strongly defended by artillery. The enemy's loss was very great. Nearly two hundred of his dead were buried by us, on the day succeeding the battle. His loss in killed, wounded,

and missing, in the two affairs of the 8th and 9th, is, I think, moderately estimated at one thousand men.

"Our victory has been decisive. A small force has overcome immense odds of the best troops that Mexico can furnish—veteran regiments perfectly equipped and appointed. Eight pieces of artillery, several colours and standards, a great number of prisoners, (including fourteen officers,) and a large amount of baggage and public property fell into our hands."

On the 10th, prisoners were exchanged, and all the American captives, including Captain Thornton, set free. On the same day Major Brown expired. On the 15th, the Mexican town of Barita was captured without resistance.

Meanwhile active preparations were going forward for crossing the Rio Grande and attacking Matamoras. Owing to the scarcity of means for transportation, this work went on but slowly; and the arrangements necessary to meet the expected resistance, caused still further delay. On the 18th, however, the crossing was effected, though with the loss of Lieutenant Stephens, a deeply lamented officer.

The different corps now encamped in the outskirts of the city. More than three hundred of the enemy's wounded were left in the hospitals. During the night of the 17th, General Arista, with the troops left together after the battle of the 9th, had evacuated the city, and commenced a rapid march for the interior.

Colonel Twiggs was appointed military governor of Matamoras, and by a just and energetic exercise of his functions, soon cleared the city of the lawless banditti that infested it, and restored order and confidence. The rights of the citizens were respected, and the people encouraged to look upon the Americans rather as friends than invaders. These pacific measures were further strengthened by a proclamation of General Taylor, in which he exhibited the tyranny of the Mexican authorities, and a desire of his government for a speedy and honourable termination of all difficulties. Soon after the capture of this important station, small parties took possession of the towns of Mier, Reynosa, and Camargo; and thus the entire region of the Rio Grande was in possession of the Americans.

For his ability in conducting the campaign on the Rio Grande, General Taylor received the thanks of Congress and a commission as brevet major-general, signed by the president. Soon after he was raised to a full major-general. The legislatures of several States voted him swords, and various demonstrations, both of popular meet-

ings and official bodies, exhibited the confidence and gratitude of the people toward him.

Upon the 3d of August, 1846, a proclamation was issued from the city of Mexico, declaring the constitution of 1824 to be in force, and inviting all who had been banished from the country since its abolition to return, "especially his excellency Don Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, well deserving of his country, acknowledging him as general-in-chief of all the forces pledged and determined to fight, in order that the nation may recover its rights, secure its liberty, and govern itself." In virtue of this proclamation, General Santa Anna sailed from Cuba, passed through the American fleet, under permission from President Polk, and reached Vera Cruz on the 16th of August. Here he was hailed as the deliverer of the nation, and commenced immediate preparations for a march to the capital. His entry into that city was a perfect triumph; and he was immediately appointed president of the republic under the constitution of 1824, and commander-in-chief of the army.

On assuming the reins of government, Santa Anna adopted a system of measures as energetic as it was judicious. He re-established the federal government, united almost all opposition, pledged his private property for the general welfare, and began extensive preparations for the raising of a large army. He declined acting as civil governor, and placing himself at the head of the troops in the capital, marched toward the seat of war.

Meanwhile General Taylor was hastening preparations for a march into the interior; but so great were his embarrassments, that the advance divisions under Butler and Twiggs were not able to start before the commencement of September. The general followed on the 5th, leaving General Patterson in command on the Rio Grande.

On the 19th he reached the Walnut Springs, three miles from Monterey.

The operations against Monterey were conducted by two divisions, under Generals Taylor and Worth, each acting independent of the other.

The former thus describes his own operations:

"At two o'clock, P. M., on the 20th, the second division took up its march. It was soon discovered by officers who were reconnoitring the town, and communicated to General Worth, that its movement had been perceived and that the enemy was throwing reinforcements toward the Bishop's Palace and the height which commands it. To divert his attention as far as practicable, the first division, under Brigadier-general Twiggs, and field division of volun-

teers, under Major-general Butler, were displayed in front of the town until dark. Arrangements were made at the same time to place in battery during the night, at a suitable distance from the enemy's main work, the citadel, two twenty-four-pounder howitzers, and a ten-inch mortar, with a view to open a fire on the following day, when I proposed to make a diversion in favour of General Worth's movement. The 4th infantry covered this battery during the night. General Worth had, in the mean time, reached and occupied for the night a defensive position just without range of a battery above the Bishop's Palace, having made a reconnoissance as far as the Saltillo road.

"Early on the morning of the 21st, I received a note from General Worth, written at half-past nine o'clock the night before, suggesting what I had already intended, a strong diversion against the centre and left of the town, to favour his enterprise against the heights in rear. The infantry and artillery of the first division, and the field division of volunteers, were ordered under arms, and took the direction of the city, leaving one company of each regiment as a camp guard. The 2d dragoons, under Lieutenant-colonel May, and Colonel Wood's regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, under the immediate direction of General Henderson, were directed to the right to support General Worth, if necessary, and to make an impression, if practicable, upon the upper quarter of the city. Upon approaching the mortar battery, the 1st and 3d regiments of infantry, and battalion of Baltimore and Washington volunteers, with Captain Bragg's field battery—the whole under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Garland—were directed toward the lower part of the town, with orders to make a strong demonstration, and carry one of the enemy's advanced works, if it could be done without too heavy loss. Major Mansfield, engineers, and Captain Williams, and Lieutenant Pope, topographical engineers, accompanied this column, Major Mansfield being charged with its direction, and the designation of points of attack. In the mean time the mortar, served by Captain Ramsay, of the ordnance, and the howitzer battery under Captain Webster, 1st artillery, had opened their fire upon the citadel, which was deliberately sustained, and answered from the works. General Butler's division had now taken up a position in rear of this battery, when the discharges of artillery, mingled finally with a rapid fire of small arms, showed that Lieutenant Garland's command had become warmly engaged. I now deemed it necessary to support this attack, and accordingly ordered the 4th infantry and three regiments of General Butler's division to march at once by the left flank in the

direction of the advanced work at the lower extremity of the town, leaving one regiment (1st Kentucky) to cover the mortar and howitzer battery. By some mistake two companies of the 4th infantry did not receive this order, and consequently did not join the advance companies until some time afterward.

"Lieutenant-colonel Garland's command had approached the town in a direction to the right of the advanced work (No. 1) at the north-eastern angle of the city, and the engineer officer, covered by skirmishers, had succeeded in entering the suburbs and gaining cover. The remainder of this command now advanced and entered the town under a heavy fire of artillery from the citadel and the works on the left, and of musketry from the houses and small works in front. A movement to the right was attempted with a view to gain the rear of No. 1, and carry that work, but the troops were so much exposed to a fire which they could not effectually return, and had already sustained such severe loss, particularly in officers, that it was deemed best to withdraw them to a more secure position. Captain Backus, 1st infantry, however, with a portion of his own and other companies, had gained the roof of a tannery, which looked directly into the gorge of No. 1, and from which he poured a most destructive fire into that work and upon the strong building in its rear. This fire happily coincided in point of time with the advance of a portion of the volunteer division upon No. 1, and contributed largely to the fall of that strong and important work.

"The three regiments of the volunteer division, under the immediate command of Major-general Butler, had in the mean time advanced in the direction of No. 1. The leading brigade, under Brigadier-general Quitman, continued its advance upon that work, preceded by three companies of the 4th infantry, while General Butler, with the first Ohio regiment, entered the town to the right. The companies of the 4th infantry had advanced within a short range of the work, when they were received by a fire that in one moment, struck down almost one-third of the officers and men, and rendered it necessary to retire and effect a conjunction with the two other companies then advancing. General Quitman's brigade, though suffering most severely, particularly in the Tennessee regiment, continued its advance, and finally carried the work in handsome style, as well as the strong building in its rear. Five pieces of artillery, a considerable supply of ammunition, and thirty prisoners, including three officers, fell into their hands. Major-general Butler, with the 1st Ohio regiment, after entering the edge of the town, discovered that nothing was to be accomplished in his front, and at this point,

yielding to the suggestion of several officers, I ordered a retrograde movement; but learning almost immediately, from one of my staff, that the battery No. 1 was in our possession, the order was countermanded; and I determined to hold the battery and defences already gained. General Butler, with the 1st Ohio regiment, then entered the town at a point further to the left, and marched in the direction of the battery No. 2. While making an examination, with a view to ascertain the possibility of carrying this second work by storm, the general was wounded, and soon after compelled to quit the field. As the strength of No. 2, and the heavy musketry fire flanking the approach, rendered it impossible to carry it without great loss, the 1st Ohio regiment was withdrawn from the town.

"Fragments of the various regiments engaged were now under cover of the captured battery, and some buildings in its front and on the right. The field batteries of Captains Bragg and Ridgely were also partially covered by the battery. An incessant fire was kept up on this position from battery No. 2, and other works on its right, and from the citadel, on all our approaches. General Twiggs, though quite unwell, joined me at this point, and was instrumental in causing the artillery captured from the enemy to be placed in battery, and served by Captain Ridgely against No. 2, until the arrival of Captain Webster's howitzer battery, which took its place. In the mean time, I directed such men as could be collected of the 1st, 3d, and 4th regiments, and Baltimore battalion, to enter the town, penetrating to the right, and carry the 2d battery if possible. This command, under Lieutenant-colonel Garland, advanced beyond the bridge "Purisima," when, finding it impracticable to gain the rear of the 2d battery, a portion of it sustained themselves for some time in that advanced position; but as no permanent impression could be made at that point, and the main object of the general operation had been effected, the command, including a section of Captain Ridgely's battery, which had joined it, was withdrawn to battery No. 1. During the absence of this column, a demonstration of cavalry was reported in the direction of the citadel. Captain Bragg, who was at hand, immediately galloped with his battery to a suitable position, from which a few discharges effectually dispersed the enemy. Captain Miller, 1st infantry, was despatched with a mixed command to support the battery on this service. The enemy's lancers had previously charged upon the Ohio and part of the Mississippi regiment, near some fields at a distance from the edge of the town, and had been repulsed with a considerable loss. A demonstration of cavalry on the opposite side of the river was also dis-

persed in the course of the afternoon by Captain Ridgely's battery, and the squadrons returned to the city. At the approach of evening, all the troops that had been engaged were ordered back to camp, except Captain Ridgely's battery, and the regular infantry of the first division, who were detailed as a guard for the works during the night, under command of Lieutenant-colonel Garland. One battalion of the 1st Kentucky regiment was ordered to reinforce this command. Intrenching tools were procured, and additional strength was given to the works, and protection to the men, by working parties during the night, under the direction of Lieutenant Scarritt, engineers.

"The main object proposed in the morning had been effected. A powerful diversion had been made to favour the operations of the 2d division, one of the enemy's advanced works had been carried, and we now had a strong foothold in the town. But this had not been accomplished without a heavy loss, embracing some of our gallant and promising officers. The number of killed and wounded incident to the operations in the lower part of the city on the 21st is three hundred and ninety-four.

"Early in the morning of this day, (21st,) the advance of the 2d division had encountered the enemy in force, and after a brief but sharp conflict, repulsed him with heavy loss. General Worth then succeeded in gaining a position on the Saltillo road, thus cutting the enemy's line of communication. From this position the two heights south of the Saltillo road were carried in succession, and the gun taken in one of them turned upon the Bishop's Palace. These important successes were fortunately obtained with comparatively small loss—Captain McCavett, 8th infantry, being the only officer killed.

"The 22d day of September passed without any active operations in the lower part of the city. The citadel and other works continued to fire at parties exposed to their range, and at the work now occupied by our troops. The guard left in it the preceding night, except Captain Ridgely's company, was relieved at midday by General Quitman's brigade. Captain Bragg's battery was thrown under cover in front of the town to repel any demonstration of cavalry in that quarter. At dawn of day, the height above the Bishop's Palace was carried, and soon after meridian, the palace itself was taken and its guns turned upon the fugitive garrison. The object for which the 2d division was detached had thus been completely accomplished, and I felt confident that with a strong force occupying the road and heights in his rear, and a good position below the city in our possession, the enemy could not possibly maintain the town.

"During the night of the 22d, the enemy evacuated nearly all his defences in the lower part of the city. This was reported to me early in the morning of the 23d by General Quitman, who had already meditated an assault upon those works. I immediately sent instructions to that officer, leaving it to his discretion to enter the city, covering his men by the houses and walls, and advance carefully as far as he might deem prudent. After ordering the remainder of the troops as a reserve, under the orders of Brigadier-general Twiggs, I repaired to the abandoned works, and discovered that a portion of General Quitman's brigade had entered the town, and were successfully forcing their way toward the principal plaza. I then ordered up the 2d regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, who entered the city, dismounted, and, under the immediate orders of General Henderson, co-operated with General Quitman's brigade. Captain Bragg's battery was also ordered up, supported by the 3d infantry; and after firing for some time at the cathedral, a portion of it was likewise thrown into the city. Our troops advanced from house to house, and from square to square, until they reached a street but one square in rear of the principal plaza, in and near which the enemy's force was mainly concentrated. This advance was conducted vigorously, but with due caution, and although destructive to the enemy, was attended with but small loss on our part. Captain Ridgely, in the mean time, had served a captured piece in battery No. 1, against the city, until the advance of our men rendered it imprudent to fire in the direction of the cathedral. I was now satisfied that we could operate successfully in the city, and that the enemy had retired from the lower portion of it to make a stand behind his barricades. As General Quitman's brigade had been on duty the previous night, I determined to withdraw the troops to the evacuated works, and concert with General Worth a combined attack upon the town. The troops accordingly fell back deliberately, in good order, and resumed their original positions, General Quitman's brigade being relieved after nightfall by that of General Hamer. On my return to camp, I met an officer with the intelligence that General Worth, induced by the firing in the lower part of the city, was about making an attack at the upper extremity, which had also been evacuated by the enemy to a considerable distance. I regretted that this information had not reached me before leaving the city, but still deemed it inexpedient to change my orders, and accordingly returned to the camp. A note from General Worth, written at eleven o'clock, P. M., informed me that he had advanced to within a short distance of the principal plaza, and that the mortar (which had

been sent to his division in the morning) was doing good execution within effective range of the enemy's position.

"Desiring to make no further attempt upon the city without complete concert as to the lines and mode of approach, I instructed that officer to suspend his advance until I could have an interview with him on the following morning at his head-quarters.

"Early on the morning of the 24th, I received, through Colonel Moreno, a communication from General Ampudia, proposing to evacuate the town; which, with the answer, were forwarded with my first despatch. I arranged with Colonel Moreno a cessation of fire until twelve o'clock, at which hour I would receive the answer of the Mexican general at General Worth's head-quarters, to which I soon repaired. In the mean time, General Ampudia had signified to General Worth his desire for a personal interview with me, to which I acceded, and which finally resulted in a capitulation, placing the town and the materiel of war, with certain exceptions, in our possession.

"Upon occupying the city, it was discovered to be of great strength in itself, and to have its approaches carefully and strongly fortified. The town and works were armed with forty-two pieces of cannon, well supplied with ammunition, and manned with a force of at least seven thousand troops of the line, and from two to three thousand irregulars. The force under my orders before Monterey, as exhibited by the accompanying return, was four hundred and twenty-five officers, and six thousand two hundred and twenty men. Our artillery consisted of one ten-inch mortar, two twenty-four-pounder howitzers, and four light field batteries of four guns each—the mortar being the only piece suitable to the operations of a siege.

"Our loss is twelve officers and one hundred and eight men killed, thirty-one officers and three hundred and thirty-seven men wounded. That of the enemy is not known, but is believed considerably to exceed our own."

By the terms of the capitulation, an armistice of six weeks was agreed upon, during which time, neither army was to pass a certain line. This the government of the United States refused to ratify.

Monterey became the main depot of General Taylor. It is an excellent city for the head-quarters of an army, being provided with every kind of defence, vast magazines for supplies, hospitals, stores, and good water. Soon after, General Wool, with the central division of the army, arrived at Monclova, from his march against Chihuahua. He was ordered with twenty-four hundred men and six field-pieces

to Parras; and General Worth with twenty-five hundred men and eight pieces to Saltillo. Both these places were occupied without opposition.

A week before the capture of Monterey, Santa Anna had received the appointment of military dictator, and immediately proceeded to San Luis Potosi, to hasten the raising of an efficient army. In November he found himself at the head of twenty thousand men, most of them raw recruits, and poorly equipped. It was his wish to clothe and discipline this force before marching against Taylor, but such was the popular clamour for immediate action, that faction began again to show itself. Some even denounced him as a traitor. Accordingly the general was obliged to sacrifice his superior judgment to the popular will, and in the same month we find him proceeding slowly toward his opponent's camp.

About this time, General Taylor received a letter from the war department, announcing that the terms of capitulation at Monterey had not met the approval of government, and directing him immediately to recommence hostilities. This he announced to Santa Anna, requesting at the same time the release of some prisoners detained at San Luis. The Mexican commander answered in a courteous manner, acknowledging the end of the truce, and liberated the prisoners, paying the expenses of their journey.

On the 15th of December, Taylor marched to meet his enemy. Information had been received that General Urrea, with a large body of cavalry was threatening Victoria; and that Santa Anna with the main army was rapidly approaching Saltillo. General Patterson was in command at this place; and anxious for his safety, the commander sent General Quitman to join him with a reinforcement, and with the main army fell back to Monterey. But at this time, Wool entered Saltillo with fresh troops, enabling General Taylor again to advance toward Victoria, which he reached on the 30th. At this place he received a letter from General Scott, requesting nearly all his regular troops for the campaign on the Gulf coast, thus again forcing him to retire to Monterey. Here he remained until February, when the arrival of volunteers, swelling his force to five thousand men, enabled him again to press forward.

On the 2d of this month, General Santa Anna left San Luis Potosi, at the head of twenty-three thousand men, and after a march in which his troops sustained difficulties of the most appalling nature, he approached General Taylor's position (February 20th) at Agua Nueva. On the same day the latter broke up his camp, and retired to a strong mountain pass, called Angostura, three miles from the

hacienda of Buena Vista. While removing some stores, a small party of Americans was defeated by the Mexicans; and, at noon on the 22d, General Taylor was summoned to surrender. We give his own account of the subsequent operations:

"Our troops were in position, occupying a line of remarkable strength. The road at its point becomes a narrow defile, the valley on its right being rendered quite impracticable for artillery by a system of deep and impassable gulleys, while on the left a succession of rugged ridges and precipitous ravines extends far back toward the mountain which bounds the valley. The features of the ground were such as nearly to paralyze the artillery and cavalry of the enemy, while his infantry could not derive all the advantage of its numerical superiority. In this position we prepared to receive him. Captain Washington's battery (4th artillery) was posted to command the road, while the 1st and 2d Illinois regiments, under Colonels Hardin and Bissell, each eight companies, (to the latter of which was attached Captain Conner's company of Texas volunteers,) and the 2d Kentucky, under Colonel McKee, occupied the crests of the ridges on the left and in rear. The Arkansas and Kentucky regiments of cavalry, commanded by Colonels Yell and H. Marshall, occupied the extreme left near the base of the mountain, while the Indiana brigade, under Brigadier-general Lane, (composed of the 2d and 3d regiments, under Colonels Bowles and Lane,) the Mississippi riflemen, under Colonel Davis, the squadrons of the 1st and 2d dragoons, under Captain Steen and Lieutenant-colonel May, and the light batteries of Captains Sherman and Bragg, 3d artillery, were held in reserve.

"At eleven o'clock, I received from General Santa Anna a summons to surrender at discretion, which, with a copy of my reply, I have already transmitted. The enemy still forbore his attack, evidently waiting for the arrival of his rear columns, which could be distinctly seen by our look-outs as they approached the field. A demonstration made on his left caused me to detach the 2d Kentucky regiment and a section of artillery to our right, in which position they bivouacked for the night. In the mean time the Mexican light troops had engaged ours on the extreme left, (composed of parts of the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry, dismounted, and a rifle battalion from the Indiana brigade, under Major Gorman, the whole commanded by Colonel Marshall,) and kept up a sharp fire, climbing the mountain side, and apparently endeavouring to gain our flank. Three pieces of Captain Washington's battery had been detached to the left, and were supported by the 2d Indiana regiment. An oc-

casional shell was thrown by the enemy into this part of our line but without effect. The skirmishing of the light troops was kept up with trifling loss on our part until dark, when I became convinced that no serious attack would be made before the morning, and returned, with the Mississippi regiment and squadron of 2d dragoons to Saltillo. The troops bivouacked without fires, and laid upon their arms. A body of cavalry, some fifteen hundred strong, had been visible all day in rear of the town, having entered the valley through a narrow pass east of the city. This cavalry, commanded by General Minon, had evidently been thrown in our rear to break up and harass our retreat, and perhaps make some attempt against the town if practicable. The city was occupied by four excellent companies of Illinois volunteers, under Major Warren of the 1st regiment. A field-work, which commanded most of the approaches, was garrisoned by Captain Webster's company, 1st artillery, and armed with two twenty-four-pound howitzers, while the train and head-quarter camp was guarded by two companies of Mississippi riflemen, under Captain Rogers, and a field-piece commanded by Captain Shover, 3d artillery. Having made these dispositions for the protection of the rear, I proceeded on the morning of the 23d to Buena Vista, ordering forward all the other available troops. The action had commenced before my arrival on the field.

"During the evening and night of the 22d, the enemy had thrown a body of light troops on the mountain side, with the purpose of outflanking our left; and it was here that the action of the 23d commenced at an early hour. Our riflemen, under Colonel Marshall, who had been reinforced by three companies under Major Trail, 2d Illinois volunteers, maintained their ground handsomely against a greatly superior force, holding themselves under cover, and using their weapons with deadly effect. About eight o'clock a strong demonstration was made against the centre of our position, a heavy column moving along the road. This force was soon dispersed by a few rapid and well-directed shots from Captain Washington's battery. In the mean time the enemy was concentrating a large force of infantry and cavalry under cover of the ridges, with the obvious intention of forcing our left, which was posted on an extensive plateau. The 2d Indiana and 2d Illinois regiments formed this part of our line, the former covering three pieces of light artillery, under the orders of Captain O'Brien—Brigadier-general Lane being in the immediate command. In order to bring his men within effective range, General Lane ordered the artillery and 2d Indiana regiment forward. The artillery advanced within musket range of a heavy

body of Mexican infantry, and was served against it with great effect, but without being able to check its advance. The infantry ordered to its support had fallen back in disorder, being exposed, as well as the battery, not only to a severe fire of small arms from the front, but also to a murderous cross-fire of grape and canister from a Mexican battery on the left. Captain O'Brien found it impossible to retain his position without support, but was only able to withdraw two of his pieces, all the horses and cannoneers of the third piece being killed or disabled. The 2d Indiana regiment, which had fallen back as stated, could not be rallied, and took no further part in the action, except a handful of men, who, under its gallant colonel, Bowles, joined the Mississippi regiment, and did good service, and those fugitives who, at a later period in the day, assisted in defending the train and depot at Buena Vista. This portion of our line having given way, and the enemy appearing in overwhelming force against our left flank, the light troops which had rendered such good service on the mountain were compelled to withdraw, which they did, for the most part, in good order. Many, however, were not rallied until they reached the depot at Buena Vista, to the defence of which they afterward contributed.

"Colonel Bissell's regiment, (2d Illinois,) which had been joined by a section of Captain Sherman's battery, had become completely outflanked, and was compelled to fall back, being entirely unsupported. The enemy was now pouring masses of infantry and cavalry along the base of the mountain on our left, and was gaining our rear in great force. At this moment I arrived upon the field. The Mississippi regiment had been directed to the left before reaching the position, and immediately came into action against the Mexican infantry which had turned our flank. The 2d Kentucky regiment, and a section of artillery under Captain Bragg, had previously been ordered from the right to reinforce our left, and arrived at a most opportune moment. That regiment, and a portion of the 1st Illinois, under Colonel Hardin, gallantly drove the enemy, and recovered a portion of the ground we had lost. The batteries of Captains Sherman and Bragg were in position on the plateau, and did much execution, not only in front, but particularly upon the masses which had gained our rear. Discovering that the enemy was heavily pressing upon the Mississippi regiment, the 3d Indiana regiment, under Colonel Lane, was despatched to strengthen that part of our line, which formed a crotchet perpendicular to the first line of battle. At the same time, Lieutenant Kilburn, with a piece of Captain Bragg's battery, was directed to support the infantry there engaged. The

action was, for a long time, warmly sustained at that point—the enemy making several efforts, both with infantry and cavalry, against our line, and being always repulsed with heavy loss. I had placed all the regular cavalry, and Captain Pike's squadron of Arkansas horse, under the orders of Brevet Lieutenant-colonel May, with directions to hold in check the enemy's column, still advancing to the rear along the base of the mountain, which was done in conjunction with the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry under Colonels Marshall and Yell.

"In the mean time our left, which was still strongly threatened by a superior force, was further strengthened by the detachment of Captain Bragg's and a portion of Captain Sherman's batteries to that quarter. The concentration of artillery fire upon the masses of the enemy along the base of the mountain, and the determined resistance offered by the two regiments opposed to them, had created confusion in their ranks, and some of the corps attempted to effect a retreat upon their main line of battle. The squadron of the 1st dragoons, under Lieutenant Rucker, was now ordered up the deep ravine which these retreating corps were endeavouring to cross, in order to charge and disperse them. The squadron proceeded to the point indicated, but could not accomplish the object, being exposed to a heavy fire from a battery established to cover the retreat of those corps. While the squadron was detached on this service, a large body of the enemy was observed to concentrate on our extreme left, apparently with a view of making a descent upon the hacienda of Buena Vista, where our train and baggage were deposited. Lieutenant-colonel May was ordered to the support of that point, with two pieces of Captain Sherman's battery under Lieutenant Reynolds. In the mean time, the scattered forces near the hacienda, composed in part of Majors Trail and Gorman's commands, had been, to some extent, organized under the advice of Major Munroe, chief of artillery, with the assistance of Major Morrison, volunteer staff, and were posted to defend the position. Before our cavalry had reached the hacienda, that of the enemy had made its attack—having been handsomely met by the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry under Colonels Marshall and Yell. The Mexican column immediately divided, one portion sweeping by the depot, where it received a destructive fire from the force which had collected there, and then gaining the mountain opposite, under a fire from Lieutenant Reynolds's section, the remaining portion regaining the base of the mountain on our left. In the charge at Buena Vista, Colonel Yell fell gallantly at the head of his regiment; we also lost Adjutant Vaughan, of the Kentucky cavalry—a young

officer of much promise. Lieutenant-colonel May, who had been rejoined by the squadron of the 1st dragoons, and by portions of the Arkansas and Indiana troops, under Lieutenant-colonel Roane and Major Gorman, now approached the base of the mountain, holding in check the right flank of the enemy, upon whose masses, crowded in the narrow gorges and ravines, our artillery was doing fearful execution.

"The position of that portion of the Mexican army which had gained our rear was now very critical, and it seemed doubtful whether it could regain the main body. At this moment I received from General Santa Anna a message by a staff officer, desiring to know what I wanted? I immediately despatched Brigadier-general Wool to the Mexican general-in-chief, and sent orders to cease firing. Upon reaching the Mexican lines, General Wool could not cause the enemy to cease their fire, and accordingly returned without having an interview. The extreme right of the enemy continued its retreat along the base of the mountain, and finally, in spite of all our efforts, effected a junction with the remainder of the army.

"During the day, the cavalry of General Minon had ascended the elevated plain above Saltillo, and occupied the road from the city to the field of battle, where they intercepted several of our men. Approaching the town, they were fired upon by Captain Webster from the redoubt occupied by his company, and then moved off toward the eastern side of the valley, and obliquely toward Buena Vista. At this time, Captain Shover moved rapidly forward with his piece, supported by a miscellaneous command of mounted volunteers, and fired several shots at the cavalry with great effect. They were driven into the ravines which lead to the lower valley, closely pursued by Captain Shover, who was further supported by a piece of Captain Webster's battery, under Lieutenant Donaldson, which had advanced from the redoubt, supported by Captain Wheeler's company of Illinois volunteers. The enemy made one or two efforts to charge the artillery, but was finally driven back in a confused mass, and did not again appear upon the plain.

"In the mean time, the firing had partially ceased upon the principal field. The enemy seemed to confine his efforts to the protection of his artillery, and I had left the plateau for a moment, when I was recalled thither by a very heavy musketry fire. On regaining that position, I discovered that our infantry (Illinois and 2d Kentucky) had engaged a greatly superior force of the enemy—evidently his reserve—and that they had been overwhelmed by numbers. The moment was most critical. Captain O'Brien, with two pieces, had

sustained this heavy charge to the last, and was finally obliged to leave his guns on the field—his infantry support being entirely routed. Captain Bragg, who had just arrived from the left, was ordered at once into battery. Without any infantry to support him, and at the imminent risk of losing his guns, this officer came rapidly into action, the Mexican line being but a few yards from the muzzle of his pieces. The first discharge of canister caused the enemy to hesitate, the second and third drove him back in disorder, and saved the day. The 2d Kentucky regiment, which had advanced beyond supporting distance in this affair, was driven back and closely pressed by the enemy's cavalry. Taking a ravine which led in the direction of Captain Washington's battery, their pursuers became exposed to his fire, which soon checked and drove them back with loss. In the mean time, the rest of our artillery had taken position on the plateau, covered by the Mississippi and 3d Indiana regiments, the former of which had reached the ground in time to pour a fire into the right flank of the enemy, and thus contribute to his repulse. In this last conflict we had the misfortune to sustain a very heavy loss. Colonel Hardin, 1st Illinois, and Colonel McKee and Lieutenant-colonel Clay, 2d Kentucky regiment, fell at this time while gallantly leading their commands.

"No further attempt was made by the enemy to force our position, and the approach of night gave an opportunity to pay proper attention to the wounded, and also to refresh the soldiers, who had been exhausted by incessant watchfulness and combat. Though the night was severely cold, the troops were compelled for the most to bivouac without fires, expecting that morning would renew the conflict. During the night the wounded were removed to Saltillo, and every preparation made to receive the enemy, should he again attack our position. Seven fresh companies were drawn from the town, and Brigadier-general Marshall, with a reinforcement of Kentucky cavalry and four heavy guns, under Captain Prentiss, 1st artillery, was near at hand, when it was discovered that the enemy had abandoned his position during the night. Our scouts soon ascertained that he had fallen back upon Agua Nueva. The great disparity of numbers, and the exhaustion of our troops, rendered it inexpedient and hazardous to attempt pursuit. A staff officer was despatched to General Santa Anna to negotiate an exchange of prisoners, which was satisfactorily completed on the following day. Our own dead were collected and buried, and the Mexican wounded, of which a large number had been left upon the field, were removed to Saltillo, and rendered as comfortable as circumstances would permit.

"On the evening of the 26th, a close reconnoissance was made of the enemy's position, which was found to be occupied only by a small body of cavalry, the infantry and artillery having retreated in the direction of San Luis Potosi. On the 27th, our troops resumed their former camp at Agua Nueva, the enemy's rear-guard evacuating the place as we approached, leaving a considerable number of wounded. It was my purpose to beat up his quarters at Encarnacion early the next morning, but upon examination, the weak condition of the cavalry horses rendered it unadvisable to attempt so long a march without water. A command was finally despatched to Encarnacion, on the 1st of March, under Colonel Belknap. Some two hundred wounded, and about sixty Mexican soldiers were found there, the army having passed on in the direction of Matehuala, with greatly reduced numbers, and suffering much from hunger. The dead and dying were strewed upon the road and crowded the buildings of the hacienda.

"The American force engaged in the action of Buena Vista is shown, by the accompanying field report, to have been three hundred and forty-four officers, and four thousand four hundred and twenty-five men, exclusive of the small command left in and near Saltillo. Of this number, two squadrons of cavalry and three batteries of light artillery, making not more than four hundred and fifty-three men, composed the only force of regular troops. The strength of the Mexican army is stated by General Santa Anna, in his summons, to be twenty thousand; and that estimate is confirmed by all the information since obtained. Our loss is two hundred and sixty-seven killed, four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. Of the numerous wounded, many did not require removal to the hospital, and it is hoped that a comparatively small number will be permanently disabled. The Mexican loss in killed and wounded may be fairly estimated at fifteen hundred, and will probably reach two thousand. At least five hundred of their killed were left upon the field of battle. We have no means of ascertaining the number of deserters and dispersed men from their ranks, but it is known to be very great."

The evening of the 23d found both armies in the same relative position, and on the same ground they had occupied in the morning. During the night, however, Santa Anna withdrew his shattered forces toward Potosi. The Americans expected an attack before morning, and were prepared for it; but, under cover of the darkness, Santa Anna withdrew his starving followers to Agua Nueva. Soon afterward General Taylor fell back toward Monterey.

On the 2d of March an escort of two hundred men, and a train of one hundred and fifty wagons, under Major Giddings, was attacked by General Urrea, at the head of a large party of lancers. The attack was so sudden that the train and escort were divided into two parties, the smaller of which Urrea summoned to surrender. A desultory conflict ensued, in which the Americans succeeded in reuniting, and repelling their opponents with the loss of about forty. The major had two soldiers killed and fifteen teamsters. He proceeded without further molestation to Seralvo, where Colonel Curtis arrived in a few days with reinforcements, and assumed command. The whole party then commenced a pursuit of Urrea, which was continued until the 16th, when it met General Taylor with a portion of the main army also in pursuit. The whole force, consisting of May's dragoons, Bragg's artillery, and Colonel Curtis's men, led by General Taylor, pushed after the Mexicans with renewed vigour; but, notwithstanding every exertion, Urrea succeeded in escaping beyond the mountains.

After this pursuit, General Taylor retired to Walnut Springs, where, on account of the small number of his troops, he was obliged to remain inactive during the summer and fall of 1847.

In May, 1846, President Polk was authorized by Congress to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, to continue the war which had commenced on the Rio Grande. Of this number ten companies composed a force destined to act against Santa Fe. They were formed of five companies of United States dragoons, two of foot, two of light artillery, and one of volunteer horse. This army was placed under the direction of Colonel Stephen W. Kearny.

The depot of Kearny's force was Fort Leavensworth. On the 27th of June his advance commenced its march; and by the 1st of August more than sixteen hundred men were concentrated at Bent's Fort, having marched a distance of five hundred and sixty-four miles. The march was resumed on the 3d, and after a toilsome journey over frightful prairies, they arrived, August 12th, at the mountains near the Rio Grande.

Signs of hostility now began to appear; and messages arrived from General Armigo, governor of Santa Fe, requesting Kearny to advance no further, or at least to consent to negotiations for peace. The tone of these was dignified but earnest. The American commander replied that he came to take possession; that the peaceable inhabitants should be well treated, but that the vengeance of both army and government would be poured upon all others. On the

march the colonel received a despatch from government constituting him brigadier-general.

On the 18th of August, General Kearny took possession of Santa Fe, in the name of the United States. The oath of allegiance was administered to the alcalde and inhabitants, and a military territorial government established. No opposition was experienced, Governor Armigo and his army having fled at the approach of the Americans. General Kearny was proclaimed governor, erected a fort, (called Fort Marcy,) and published a proclamation to the inhabitants.

After seeing every thing in a state of tranquillity, General Kearny commenced his march, September 25th, for the distant region of California.

Before the general had accomplished this arduous undertaking, Colonel Doniphan, with his citizen volunteers, commenced one of equal magnitude, and pregnant with events of paramount importance. When Kearny left Santa Fe, he ordered the colonel to proceed as soon as practicable into Chihuahua, and report to General Wool, who with the centre division had been intrusted with the conquering of that province.

On the 17th of December, Doniphan, with nine hundred and twenty-four men, began his expedition. On the 24th they reached the Jornada Lake, into which runs the Brazito River, more than twenty miles from the Passo del Norte, of the eastern mountain range. Here they were informed that the Mexicans, to the number of one thousand, were collected at the Pass, ready for an attack. The Americans numbered about six hundred, the remainder being sick. On the afternoon of the following day, (Christmas,) the enemy were seen approaching, and, when within eight hundred yards, extended themselves so as to cover the American flank. An officer approached, carrying a black flag, and after proclaiming no quarters, rejoined his column, which immediately charged at a rapid gallop. The conflict was but short—the Mexicans being defeated with the loss of thirty killed, and driven into the mountains. Eight were captured, six of whom subsequently died; and their single piece of cannon was also taken. The Americans had seven wounded. On the 27th, Doniphan entered the town of El Passo without resistance, where he was reinforced by Major Clark's artillery.

On the 8th of February, 1847, the whole command left the Passo del Norte, and marched for Chihuahua. On the 28th, they fought the battle of Sacramento.

Four thousand Mexican troops were strongly posted at the Pass of the Sacramento. Doniphan's force was but nine hundred and

twenty-four effective. Yet within two hours, he drove the enemy from all their positions, killed or wounded several hundred of them, while he lost but a few of his own troops, and captured an immense quantity of stores and ammunition. This was a glorious triumph under the circumstances.

On the 1st of March, Colonel Doniphan took possession of Chihuahua, where he remained three weeks. At the end of this time, having received orders from General Wool, he marched, April 25th, for Saltillo. On the road, Captain Reid defeated about fifty Indians near El Passo, May 13th, capturing one thousand horses. On the 22d of May the command reached Wool's encampment, and on the 27th, that of General Taylor.

As the term of service of these gallant men had expired, they now commenced their return. Early in June they marched through Matamoras, and on the 16th, arrived at New Orleans.

Meanwhile a military and naval force under the direction, first, of Commodore Sloat, and afterward of Commodore Stockton, had taken possession of California, and published a proclamation to the inhabitants, claiming it as part of the United States. The headquarters of his forces was the Ciudad de los Angelos. An elective government was established, officers elected, and a tariff on imports established. Stockton then proceeded to San Francisco. The fleet in the mean while blockaded the entire coast of California, and on the 19th of November, 1846, captured the town of Panuco. While the commodore was congratulating himself upon the favourable condition of affairs, the inhabitants of los Angelos suddenly arose in revolt, and compelled the surrender of Captain Gillespie, with thirty men. Immediately after, the whole region south of Monterey (California) were in arms. Stockton, accompanied by Colonel Fremont, hastened back, and commenced a desultory war with the insurrectionists, which lasted until January, 1847, when, in the battle of San Gabriel (8th and 9th) the Mexicans were defeated, and subordination restored. Kearny, who had lately arrived in California, aided Stockton in this battle.

A dispute now arose between Kearny and Stockton concerning the government of California. The former produced his commission as governor from the president; but for several reasons, Stockton declared it null. To this opinion Colonel Fremont assented. Kearny submitted until the arrival of reinforcements, when Stockton left the territory, and the general arrested Fremont, and sent him to the United States. After a most thorough investigation, which lasted more than two months, he was found guilty of mutiny, disobedience

of orders, and unofficer-like conduct, and sentenced to be dismissed from the army. Being recommended, however, to the clemency of the president, the sentence was remitted, and the colonel immediately reported for duty.

On receiving news of the actual commencement of hostilities, at the Rio Grande, General Scott, commander-in-chief of the American army, requested of government privilege to join the army of occupation with a large force, and push forward rapidly for the Mexican capital. This was refused, and the commander obliged to remain inactive until November, when he received orders to repair immediately to the seat of war. Accordingly he reached the Rio Grande, January 1st, 1847.

Scott's sphere of operations was different from that of Taylor. With his own troops, and those drawn from the army of occupation, (numbering altogether about twelve thousand,) he had been ordered to proceed against the city of Vera Cruz and its castle, as the first step in a grand scale of operations, the destination of which was the city of Mexico.

After considerable delay in completing necessary arrangements, the fleet under Commodore Conner, having on board the commander and his army, arrived off Vera Cruz.

On the 9th, the landing was effected below Vera Cruz. No opposition was experienced. On the 22d of March, the city was completely invested, and the strong castle of San Juan de Ulloa, in front, threatened by the vessels of the squadron. The governor declined a summons to surrender, and General Scott immediately opened his batteries. The bombardment and cannonade continued until the 24th, when the city and castle capitulated. The loss of the Mexicans during this great siege was very heavy; but the besiegers had only twelve killed and sixty-five wounded. On the 29th, General Scott entered the city.

After remaining more than two weeks with his army at Vera Cruz, General Scott commenced his advance, April 8th, for the capital. On the 11th, Twiggs's division reached the Plan del Rio, where, in a few days, it was joined by those of Quitman and Worth.

At this time, Santa Anna was stationed at the strong mountain pass of Sierra Gordo, which he had fortified with the greatest precaution. Here he awaited the arrival of the Americans with firmness, calculating that the advantages of his position and his superiority of force would give him an easy victory over the army of General Scott.

The road from Vera Cruz, as it passes the Plan del Rio, which is

a wide, rocky bed of a once large stream, is commanded by a series of high cliffs, rising one above the other, and extending several miles, and all well fortified. The road then debouches to the right, and, curving around the ridge, passes over a high cliff, which is completely enfiladed by forts and batteries. This ridge is the commencement of *Terra Templada*, the upper or mountainous country. The high and rocky ravine of the river protected the right flank of the position, and a series of most abrupt and apparently impassable mountains and ridges covered their left. Between these points, running a distance of two or three miles, a succession of strongly fortified forts bristled at every turn, and seemed to defy all bravery and skill. The Sierra Gordo commanded the road on a gentle declination, like a glacis, for nearly a mile—an approach in that direction was impossible. A front attack must have terminated in the almost entire annihilation of our army. But the enemy expected such an attack, confiding in the desperate valour of our men, and believing that it was impossible to turn their position to the right or left. General Scott, however, with the eye of a skilful general, perceived the trap set for him, and determined to avoid it. He, therefore, had a road cut to the right, so as to escape the front fire from the Sierra, and turn his position on the left flank. This movement was made known to the enemy by a deserter from our camp, and consequently a large increase of force under General Vega was sent to the forts on the left.

General Scott, to cover his flank movements, on the 17th of April, ordered forward General Twiggs against the fort on the steep ascent, in front and a little to the left of the Sierra. Colonel Harney commanded this expedition, and, at the head of the rifles and some detachments of infantry and artillery, carried his position under a heavy fire of grape and musketry. Having secured this position in front and near the enemy's strongest fortification, and having by incredible labour elevated one of our large guns to the top of the fort, General Scott prepared to follow up his advantages. A demonstration was made from this position against another strong fort in the rear, and near the Sierra, but the enemy was considered too strong, and the undertaking was abandoned. A like demonstration was made by the enemy.

Every thing being ready for a general attack, Twiggs's division moved on the morning of the 18th against the main fortress, Pillow's against that on the right, and Shields's and Worth's to the road in order to cut off all retreat. The troops composing the first, headed by Colonel Harney, pushed forward under a tremendous fire, and

soon swept the works with the bayonet; but La Vega succeeded in repulsing General Pillow. He finally surrendered, however, on ascertaining that Santa Anna was defeated. The latter fled with precipitation, accompanied by Generals Almonte and Canalizo, and, with about half of the army escaped. He was so hotly pursued by Colonel Harney, as to leave behind his state carriage, trunks, and several thousand dollars in silver.

In this battle the Americans lost about two hundred and fifty in killed and wounded. General Shields was shot through the lungs by a musket ball, but to the astonishment of all, survived. The loss of the Mexicans was about the same, exclusive of prisoners, who numbered three thousand. So great a quantity of stores, small arms, cannon, ammunition, &c., were taken, that General Scott, in his despatch to government, stated that he was embarrassed with the results of victory. The force of the enemy in this battle numbered eleven thousand; that of the Americans, six thousand.

The several divisions of the army rapidly pursued their success. On the 19th, Twiggs entered Jalapa without opposition. On the 22d, General Worth took undisputed possession of the town and castle of Perote, one of the strongest in Mexico. Tuspan, on the seacoast, had been previously taken (18th) by a portion of the Gulf squadron under Commodore Perry. Worth remained near Jalapa until the 15th of May, when he captured the city of Puebla.

The army remained at Puebla until August, when reinforcements having arrived, General Scott began his famous march for the city of Mexico. The troops passed the Rio Frio without opposition, and on the 10th reached Ayotla. Here a careful reconnoissance was made of the position El Penon, a fortification strongly defended by both nature and art. It had also been garrisoned with so much care, that General Scott determined to avoid it by marching round Lake Chalco, over a road discovered by General Worth. On the evening of the 17th, Worth's division arrived near San Antonio, after a most toilsome march over a rugged broken road. On the following day Captain Thornton was killed while reconnoitring the Mexican position. The troops lay on their arms all night, and on the following day, at one o'clock P. M., Generals Smith and Riley attacked Contreras. This strong fortress was carried before daylight of the 20th, the enemy being completely routed with immense slaughter. An officer thus describes the taking of Churubusco:—

"General Worth had made a demonstration on San Antonio, where the enemy was fortified in a strong hacienda; but they retired on his approach to Churubusco, where the works were deemed im-

pregnable. They consisted of a fortified hacienda, which was surrounded by a high and thick wall on all sides. Inside the wall was a stone building, the roof of which was flat and higher than the walls. Above all this was a stone church, still higher than the rest, and having a large steeple. The wall was pierced with loopholes, and so arranged that there were two tiers of men firing at the same time. They thus had four different ranges of men firing at once, and four ranks were formed on each range and placed at such a height that they could not only overlook all the surrounding country, but at the same time they had a plunging fire upon us. Outside the hacienda, and completely commanding the avenues of approach, was a field-work extending around two sides of the work and protected by a deep, wet ditch, and armed with seven large pieces. This hacienda is at the commencement of the causeway leading to the western gate of the city, and had to be passed before getting on the road. About three hundred yards in the rear of this work, another field-work had been built where a cross road meets the causeway, at a point where it crosses a river, thus forming a bridge head, or *tete de pont*. This was also very strong and armed with three very large pieces of cannon. The works were surrounded on every side by large cornfields, which were filled with the enemy's skirmishers, so that it was difficult to make a reconnoisance. It was therefore decided to make the attack immediately, as they were full of men and extended for nearly a mile on the road to the city, completely covering the causeway. The attack commenced about one P. M. General Twiggs's division attacked on the side toward which they approached the fort, *i. e.* opposite the city. General Worth's attacked the bridge head, which he took in about an hour and a half; while Generals Pillow and Quitman were on the extreme left, between the causeway and Twiggs's division. The rifles were on the left, and in the rear of the work, intrusted by General Scott with the task of charging the work in case General Pierce gave way. The firing was tremendous—in fact, one continued roll while the combat lasted. The enemy, from their elevated position, could readily see our men, who were unable to get a clear view from their position. Three of the pieces were manned by "*The Deserters*," a body of about one hundred, who had deserted from the ranks of our army during the war. They were enrolled in two companies, commanded by a deserter, and were better uniformed and disciplined than the rest of the army. These men fought most desperately, and are said not only to have shot down several of our officers whom they knew, but to have pulled down the white flag of surrender no less than three times.

The battle raged most furiously for about three hours, when both sides, having lost a great many, the enemy began to give way. As soon as they commenced retreating, Kearny's squadron passed through the *tete de pont*, and charging through the retreating column, pursued them to the very gate of the city. As they got within about five hundred yards of the gate, they were opened upon with grape and canister, and several officers wounded.

The official returns give our loss in killed and wounded, in the two battles of Contreras and Churubusco, at eleven hundred and fifty, besides officers. The Mexican loss is five hundred killed in the second battle, one thousand wounded, and eleven hundred prisoners, exclusive of officers. Three more generals were taken, among them General Rincon, and Anaya, the provisional president; also ten pieces of cannon, and an immense amount of ammunition and stores. Santa Anna, in his report, states his loss in killed, wounded, and missing, at twelve thousand. He has only eighteen thousand left out of thirty thousand, which he gives as his force on the 20th, in both actions.

Mindful of the desire, so often expressed by President Polk, to conquer a peace, General Scott halted his victorious troops within sight of the capital, and offered terms of an armistice preparatory to the opening of negotiations for a peace. The offer was gladly accepted, and an armistice concluded.

During the cessation of hostilities, court-martials, appointed by General Scott, tried and sentenced Sergeant Riley, and seventy others, who had deserted at various times. Fifty were sentenced to be hung, but were afterward pardoned. The remainder, including the sergeant, having joined the Mexicans prior to the declaration of war, were branded, publicly whipped, sentenced to solitary confinement, with a chain and ball, while the army should remain in Mexico, and afterward to be drummed out of service. All these men were captured fighting desperately at Churubusco.

Overtures of peace were now made by Mr. Trist, the American plenipotentiary, who agreed that the United States should pay a certain sum for California, and retain Texas with the Rio Grande as the boundary. To the latter condition the Mexicans would not assent. On the 2d of September, Mr. Trist handed in his ultimatum on boundaries, and the negotiators adjourned to assemble on the 6th.

General Scott thus details the operations subsequent to the meeting of the commissioners:

"Some infractions of the truce, in respect to our supplies from the city, were earlier committed, followed by apologies on the part

of the enemy. Those vexations I was willing to put down to the imbecility of the government, and waived pointed demands of reparation while any hope remained of a satisfactory termination of the war. But on the 5th, and more fully on the 6th, I learned that as soon as the *ultimatum* had been considered in a grand council of ministers and others, President Santa Anna, on the 4th or 5th, without giving me the slightest notice, actively recommenced strengthening the military defences of the city, in gross violation of the third article of the armistice.

"On that information, which has since received the fullest verification, I addressed to him my note of the 6th. His reply, dated the same day, received the next morning, was absolutely and notoriously false, both in recrimination and explanation. I enclose copies of both papers, and have had no subsequent correspondence with the enemy. Being delayed by the terms of the armistice more than two weeks, we had now, late on the 7th, to begin to reconnoiter the different approaches to the city within our reach, before I could lay down any definite plan of attack.

"The same afternoon, a large body of the enemy was discovered hovering about the Molinos del Rey, within a mile and a third of this village, where I am quartered with the general staff and Worth's division.

"It might have been supposed that an attack upon us was intended; but knowing the great value to the enemy of those mills, (Molinos del Rey,) containing a cannon foundry, with a large deposit of powder in Casa Mata, near them; and having heard, two days before, that many church bells had been sent out to be cast into guns, the enemy's movement was easily understood, and I resolved at once to drive him early the next morning, to seize the powder, and to destroy the foundry.

"Another motive for this decision—leaving the general plan of attack upon the city for full reconnoissances—was, that we knew our recent captures had left the enemy not a fourth of the guns necessary to arm, all at the same time, the strong works at each of the eight city gates; and we could not cut the communication between the capital and the foundry without first taking the formidable castle on the heights of Chapultepec, which overlooked both, and stood between."

The management of this important assault was intrusted to Major-general Worth. He describes his operations as follows:

"Having, in the course of the 7th, accompanied the general-in-chief on a reconnoissance of the formidable dispositions of the enemy, near and around the castle of Chapultepec, they were found

to exhibit an extended line of cavalry and infantry, sustained by a field-battery of four guns—occupying directly, or sustaining a system of defences collateral to the castle and summit. This examination gave fair observation of the configuration of the grounds and the extent of the enemy's force, but, as appeared in the sequel, an inadequate idea of the nature of his defences—they being skilfully masked.

"The general-in-chief ordered that my division, reinforced, should attack and carry those lines and defences, capture the enemy's artillery, destroy the machinery and material supposed to be in the foundry, (El Molino del Rey,) but limiting the operations to that extent. After which my command was to be immediately withdrawn to its position in the village of Tacubaya.

"A close and daring reconnoissance by Captain Mason, of the engineers, made on the morning of the 7th, represented the enemy's lines collateral to Chapultepec to be as follows: his left rested upon and occupied a group of strong stone buildings, called El Molino del Rey, adjoining the grove at the foot of the hill of Chapultepec, and directly under the guns of the castle which crowns its summit. The right of this line rested upon another stone building, called Casa Mata, situated at the foot of the ridge that slopes gradually from the heights above the village of Tacubaya to the plain below. Midway between these buildings was the enemy's field-battery, and his infantry forces were disposed on either side to support it. This reconnoissance was verified by Captain Mason and Colonel Duncan, on the afternoon of the same day. The result indicated that the centre was the weak point of the enemy's position, and that his flanks were the strong points, his left flank being the strongest.

"As the enemy's system of defence was connected with the hill and castle of Chapultepec, and as my operations were limited to a specific object, it became necessary to isolate the work to be accomplished from the castle of Chapultepec and its immediate defences. To effect this object, the following dispositions were ordered: Colonel Garland's brigade to take position on the right, strengthened by two pieces of Captain Drum's battery, to look to El Molino del Rey as well as any support of this position from Chapultepec; and also within sustaining distance of the assaulting party and the battering guns, which, under Captain Huger, were placed on the ridge five or six hundred yards from El Molino del Rey, to batter and loosen this position from Chapultepec. An assaulting party of five hundred picked men and officers, under command of Brevet Major George Wright, 8th infantry, was also posted on the ridge to the left of the

battering guns, to force the enemy's centre. The 2d (Clark's) brigade, the command of which devolved on Colonel McIntosh, (Colonel Clark being sick,) with Duncan's battery, was to take post still farther up the ridge, opposite the enemy's right, to look to our left flank, to sustain the assaulting column if necessary, or to discomfit the enemy, the ground being favourable, as circumstances might require. Cadwalader's brigade was held in reserve, in a position on the ridge, between the battering guns and McIntosh's brigade, and in easy support of either. The cavalry, under Major Sumner, to envelope our extreme left, and be governed by circumstances—to repel or attack, as the commander's judgment might suggest. The troops to be put in position under cover of the night, and the work to begin as soon as the heavy material could be properly directed. Colonel Duncan was charged with the general disposition of the artillery.

"Accordingly, at three o'clock on the morning of the 8th, the several columns were put in motion on as many different routes; and, when the gray of the morning enabled them to be seen, they were as accurately in position as if posted in midday for review. The early dawn was the moment appointed for the attack, which was announced to our troops by the opening of Huger's guns on El Molino del Rey, upon which they continued to play actively, until this point of the enemy's line became sensibly shaken, when the assaulting party, commanded by Wright, and guided by that accomplished officer, Captain Mason, of the engineers, assisted by Lieutenant Foster, dashed gallantly forward to the assault. Unshaken by the galling fire of musketry and canister that was showered upon them, on they rushed, driving infantry and artillerymen at the point of the bayonet. The enemy's field-battery was taken, and his own guns were trailed upon his retreating masses; before, however, they could be discharged, perceiving that he had been dispossessed of this strong position by comparatively a handful of men, he made a desperate effort to regain it. Accordingly his retiring forces rallied and formed with this object. Aided by the infantry, which covered the house-tops, (within reach of which the battery had been moved during the night,) the enemy's whole line opened upon the assaulting party a terrific fire of musketry, which struck down *eleven* out of the *fourteen* officers that composed the command, and non-commissioned officers and men in proportion; including, among the officers, Brevet Major Wright, the commander; Captain Mason and Lieutenant Foster, engineers: all severely wounded.

"This severe shock staggered, for a moment, that gallant band. The light battalion, held to cover Huger's battery, under Captain E.

Kirby Smith, (Lieutenant-colonel Smith being sick,) and the right wing of Cadwalader's brigade, were promptly ordered forward to support, which order was executed in the most gallant style; the enemy was again routed, and this point of his line carried, and fully possessed by our troops. In the mean time, Garland's (1st) brigade, ably sustained by Captain Drum's artillery, assaulted the enemy's left, and, after an obstinate and very severe contest, drove him from this apparently impregnable position, immediately under the guns of the castle of Chapultepec. Drum's section, and the battering guns under Captain Huger, advanced to the enemy's position, and the captured guns of the enemy were now opened on his retreating forces, on which they continued to fire until beyond their reach.

"While this work was in progress of accomplishment by our centre and right, our troops on the left were not idle. Duncan's battery opened on the right of the enemy's line, up to this time engaged; and the 2d brigade, under Colonel McIntosh, was now ordered to assault the extreme right of the enemy's line. The direction of this brigade soon caused it to mask Duncan's battery—the fire of which for the moment was discontinued—and the brigade moved steadily on to the assault of Casa Mata, which, instead of an ordinary field intrenchment, as was supposed, proved to be a strong stone citadel, surrounded with bastioned intrenchments and impassable ditches—an old Spanish work, recently repaired and enlarged. When within easy musket range, the enemy opened a most deadly fire upon our advancing troops, which was kept up without intermission until our gallant men reached the very slope of the parapet of the work that surrounded the citadel. By this time a large proportion of the command was either killed or wounded, among whom were the three senior officers present—Brevet Colonel McIntosh, Brevet Lieutenant-colonel Scott, of the 5th infantry, and Major Waite, 8th infantry: the second killed, and the first and last desperately wounded. Still, the fire from the citadel was unabated. In this crisis of the attack, the command was momentarily thrown into disorder, and fell back on the left of Duncan's battery, where they rallied.

As the 2d brigade moved to the assault, a very large cavalry and infantry force was discovered approaching rapidly upon our left flank, to reinforce the enemy's right. As soon as Duncan's battery was masked, as before mentioned, supported by Andrew's voltigeurs, of Cadwalader's brigade, it moved promptly to the extreme left of our line, to check the threatened assault on this point. The enemy's cavalry came rapidly within canister range, when the whole battery opened a most effective fire, which soon broke the squadrons, and

drove them back in disorder. During this fire upon the enemy's cavalry, Major Sumner's command moved to the front, and changed direction in admirable order, under a most appalling fire from the Casa Mata. This movement enabled his command to cross the ravine immediately on the left of Duncan's battery, where it remained, doing noble service until the close of the action. At the very moment the cavalry were driven beyond reach, our own troops drew back from before the Casa Mata, and enabled the guns of Duncan's battery to reopen upon this position, which, after a short and well-directed fire, the enemy abandoned. The guns of the battery were now turned upon his retreating columns, and continued to play upon them until beyond reach.

"He was now driven from every point of the field, and his strong lines, which had certainly been defended well, were in our possession. In fulfilment of the instructions of the commander-in-chief, the Casa Mata was blown up, and such of the captured ammunition as was useless to us, as well as the cannon moulds found in El Molino del Rey, were destroyed. After which my command, under the reiterated orders of the general-in-chief, returned to quarters at Tacubaya, with three of the enemy's four guns, (the fourth, having been spiked, was rendered unserviceable;) as also a large quantity of small arms, with gun and musket ammunition, and exceeding eight hundred prisoners, including fifty-two commissioned officers.

"By concurrent testimony of prisoners, the enemy's force exceeded fourteen thousand men, commanded by General Santa Anna in person. His total loss, killed, including the second and third in command, (Generals Valdarez and Leon,) wounded, and prisoners, amounts to three thousand, exclusive of some two thousand who deserted after the rout.

"My command, reinforced as before stated, only reached three thousand one hundred men of all arms. The contest continued two hours, and its severity is painfully attested by our heavy loss of officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates, including in the first two classes some of the brightest ornaments of the service."

This victory prepared the way for more important ones. The time from the 8th to the 11th was spent in careful reconnoissances of the defences around the capital. A description of these we give in General Scott's own words:

"This city (Mexico) stands on a slight swell of ground, near the centre of an irregular basin, and is girdled with a ditch in its greater extent—a navigable canal of great breadth and depth—very difficult to bridge in the presence of an enemy, and serving at once for

drainage, custom-house purposes, and military defence; having eight entrances or gates over arches—each of which we found defended by a system of strong works, that seemed to require nothing but some men and guns to be impregnable. Outside, and within the cross-fires of those gates, we found to the south other obstacles little less formidable. All the approaches near the city are elevated causeways, cut in many places, (to oppose us,) and flanked on both sides by ditches, also of unusual dimensions. The numerous cross-roads are flanked in like manner, having bridges at the intersections, recently broken. The meadows thus checkered are, moreover, in many spots, under water or marshy; for, it will be remembered, we were in the midst of the wet season, though with less rain than usual, and we could not wait for the fall of the neighbouring lakes, and the consequent drainage of the wet grounds at the edge of the city."

In order to save the lives of his men, by avoiding these formidable obstacles, General Scott determined on a sudden and secret movement to the south-west, where the defences were feeble. This was admirably executed, the enemy mistaking a feint for the real march, until it was too late to retrieve themselves.

The most important step in the new movement was the capture of Chapultepec, a natural and isolated mound of great elevation, strongly fortified at its base. Besides a numerous garrison, there was stationed at this place the military college of the republic, containing a large number of sub-lieutenants and other students.

The bombardment of this strong place was commenced on the morning of the 12th, and continued with great activity, under the direction of Captain Huger, throughout the day. It was renewed on the following day, and kept up until eight o'clock, when General Scott gave signal to the divisions of Pillow and Quitman for a general assault. The redoubt yielded to resistless valour, and the enemy were so closely pursued as to be unable to fire a single mine without blowing up friend and foe. Then the ditch and wall of the main work were reached, scaling-ladders planted, and hundreds rushed over among the garrison. The cannon ceased, and the dire clashing of bayonets told of mortal strife. This also ceased, and long, loud cheers announced that Chapultepec had fallen.

Simultaneously with the movement on the west, General Quitman had approached on the east, over a causeway, with cuts and batteries, defended by troops without and within. Deep ditches, flanking the causeway, made it difficult to cross on either side into the adjoining meadows, and these again were intersected by other ditches. By skilful manœuvring, the New York, South Carolina, and 2d Penn-

sylvania volunteers, with portions of Quitman's storming parties, crossed the meadows in front, under a heavy fire, and entered the outer enclosure of Chapultepec, in time to join in the final assault from the west.

In the commencement of this brilliant affair, General Worth had been stationed in rear of the castle, to act as circumstances might require. During the attack, one brigade had been withdrawn by Pillow to assist his movements; and on observing a large party of the enemy outside the works, General Scott ordered him to turn Chapultepec with his division, proceeding cautiously by the road at its northern base, in order, if not met by very superior numbers, to threaten and attack the rear of that force. Worth promptly obeyed these directions, although having but one brigade. In turning a forest, he came up with the troops under Colonel Trousdale, and aided in taking a breastwork. Then passing Chapultepec, he attacked the right of the enemy's line at the time of the general retreat consequent upon the capture of the castle. After this he entered the San Cosme road, and commenced a rapid pursuit of the flying enemy. At the same time Quitman was hurrying forward by the Belen aqueduct.

Deeming the continuance of this pursuit highly important, General Scott sent two brigades to assist Worth, and one for the same purpose to Quitman. At a junction of the roads they found a formidable system of defences entirely abandoned. Into these Worth's troops entered, and commenced a street fight with the enemy, who were posted in gardens, at windows, and on house-tops. Worth ordered forward the mountain howitzers of Cadwalader's brigade, preceded by skirmishers and pioneers, with bars and axes, to force doors and windows, and to burrow through walls. Soon the assailants were in an equality of position with the enemy, and by eight o'clock, P. M. had carried two batteries. This brought them in front of the San Cosme gate, the only remaining obstruction to the grand plaza fronting the cathedral and palace. Here, in obedience to instructions, Worth halted, posted guards and sentinels, and placed his troops under shelter for the night.

Meanwhile, Quitman, assisted by Generals Shields and Smith, had passed rapidly along the other road, carried a battery in the face of flank and direct fires, stormed the Belen gate at two o'clock, and entered the city. Here he halted, sheltered himself as well as practicable, and waited for further instructions.

At four o'clock next morning, a deputation of the city council waited on General Scott, to report that the army and federal govern-

ment had fled from the city about midnight, in consequence of which they demanded terms of capitulation. The general replied, that he would sign no capitulation, nor submit to any terms not self-imposed —such only as the honour of his army, the dignity of his country, and the spirit of the age demanded.

About daylight, Worth and Quitman were ordered to advance slowly and cautiously toward the heart of the city, and occupy its commanding points. The latter officer proceeded to the great square, planted guards, and hoisted the colours of the United States on the National Palace. At about eight o'clock, the general-in-chief, dressed in full uniform, accompanied by his staff, and escorted by bands of music, entered the city at the head of his army. Before noon, a fire was opened upon the Americans from the corners of streets, windows, and roofs of houses, by some two thousand convicts, liberated the night before by the flying government. This cowardly war lasted more than twenty-four hours, notwithstanding all the exertions of the municipal authorities, and was not put down until the army had lost many men killed and wounded, including several officers. General Quitman was appointed military governor of the city, and Captain Naylor superintendent of the National Palace. The former returning soon after to the United States, was succeeded by General Smith.

General Scott thus sums up the great achievements of his army:

"This small force (eight thousand men) has beaten on the same occasions, in view of the capital, the whole Mexican army, of (at the beginning) thirty odd thousand men—posted always in chosen positions, behind intrenchments, or more formidable defences of nature and art; killed or wounded of that number more than seven thousand officers and men; taken three thousand seven hundred and thirty prisoners, one-seventh officers, including thirteen generals, of whom three had been presidents of this republic; captured more than twenty colours and standards, seventy-five pieces of ordnance, besides fifty-seven wall pieces, twenty thousand small arms, an immense quantity of shot, shells, powder, &c."

General Scott's loss in the battles of August, was one thousand and fifty-two men, of whom seventy-six were officers; on the 8th of September, seven hundred and eighty-nine, of whom fifty-eight were officers; before the capital, eight hundred and sixty-two men, including seventy-eight officers; total, two thousand seven hundred and three, including three hundred and eighty-three officers.

Having thus obtained complete possession of Mexico, General Scott proclaimed martial law, and levied a contribution upon the

inhabitants. Business was resumed, and the city again became quiet and cheerful. Two months after, a proclamation was issued, requesting the inhabitants of other cities to lay down arms, and declaring the determination of the commander to spread his army over the country in order to enforce obedience.

During these operations before the capitol, a revolt had taken place in Puebla, which forced the American governor, Colonel Childs, to take refuge in the fortresses of San Jose, Loreto, and Guadaloupe. Here he was shut up by the inhabitants, and a bombardment commenced on the 14th of September, which lasted twenty-eight days. The enemy cut off all supplies, and attempted to change the direction of a stream of water running through San Jose. The Americans were fired upon from houses, streets, forts, and mounds; and frequently the bombardment continued through the entire night.

On the 22d, Santa Anna arrived with large reinforcements from Mexico, and on the 25th demanded a surrender. This was refused. A combined attack then commenced, and continued until the 2d of October, when a revolt of Santa Anna's troops obliged him to withdraw. Taking advantage of this, Colonel Childs detached two parties on a sortie. Captain William F. Small, who conducted one of them, succeeded in destroying a barricade of one hundred and fifty cotton bales, and driving back the enemy with a loss of seventeen men. The besiegers, although considerably disheartened, continued their operations until the 12th, when General Lane arrived at the city with large reinforcements for the American army, and soon cleared it of the enemy.

In his march to Puebla, Lane had encountered the forces of Santa Anna, at the town of Huamantla, (October 9th.) Leaving his train packed at the hacienda of Tamaris, he sent forward part of his forces, with Captain Walker's mounted men in advance, with instructions to drive the enemy from the town. When within about three miles, Walker observed parties of horsemen galloping in the same direction, and accordingly pushed forward at a rapid pace toward Huamantla. At the same time, about two thousand lancers came over the neighbouring hills, unseen by Walker, and approached the town.

On arriving near the main plaza, Captain Walker discovered about five hundred of the enemy drawn up there, and immediately ordered a charge. The Mexicans were defeated, and driven through the city, until the arrival of their reinforcements. After fighting three-quarters of an hour, the captain succeeded in taking two pieces of artillery, but was not able to use them. Immediately after this success, the gallant and chivalric Walker was mortally wounded. The

total loss of the Americans was thirteen killed and eleven wounded; that of the enemy more than one hundred. One brass six-pounder, a mountain howitzer, with some wagons, and a large quantity of ammunition were captured.

General Lane remained in Puebla until the 18th, when, ascertaining that General Rea, with a considerable Mexican force was at Atlisco, he ordered a movement for that place on the following morning. The march was commenced about noon of the 19th, and at four P. M., the advance guard of the enemy was discovered near Santa Isabella. A running fight took place, over a distance of four miles, when the Mexican main army appeared, ranged on a hill behind chaparral hedges. The cavalry dashed among them, and a bloody conflict ensued, attended with great loss to the enemy. They finally retreated, and were pursued to the town. Night had now arrived, but a fine moonlight rendered it still possible to continue operations. "Deeming it unsafe," says General Lane, "to risk a street fight in an unknown town at night, I ordered the artillery to be posted on a hill, near to the town, and overlooking it, and opened its fire. Now ensued one of the most beautiful sights conceivable. Every gun was served with the utmost rapidity; and the crash of the walls and the roofs of the houses, when struck by our shot and shells, was mingled with the roar of our artillery. The bright light of the moon enabled us to direct our shots to the most thickly populated parts of the town."

This bombardment continued three-quarters of an hour, when the general was waited on by the city council, who desired that the town might be spared. This was granted, and after destroying considerable military stores and arms, Lane left next morning for Puebla. His loss was one killed, and one wounded; that of the enemy, two hundred and nineteen killed, and three hundred wounded.

In the same month the towns of Guaymas and Mazatlan were taken by a portion of the American fleet. On the 15th the Portsmouth sloop-of-war anchored off the port of the former, and was joined soon after by the frigate Congress, and the brig Argo. The town was twice summoned to surrender, and on the 19th was abandoned by the Mexican army. At six o'clock next morning the Americans opened their fire from both vessels of war and the two mortars, and continued it for more than an hour. They discharged into the town more than five hundred shot. One English resident was killed, some houses were burned, and others entirely destroyed. The town then submitted without further resistance. About the same time four ships of war took possession of the port of Mazatlan.

After this, little of interest transpired until the latter end of January, when General Scott, in company with Mr. Trist, opened negotiations of peace with the Mexican commissioners,—Luis G. Cuevas, Bernardo Conto, and Miguel Atristain,—assuming as a basis the articles formerly proposed by Mr. Trist, and rejected by Santa Anna. The most important of these were the cession of a large portion of California and all of New Mexico to the United States for a stipulated sum; the adoption of the Rio Grande, as far as the Gila, for a boundary between the two countries; the surrender of all posts, cities, fortresses, &c., captured during the war; and the full ratification of the treaty of April 5th, 1831.

As commander-in-chief of the American army, General Scott accepted this treaty from the Mexican congress, and forwarded it immediately to Washington. It arrived in that city on the 20th of February, and was laid before the president, who, on the 22d, submitted it to the senate, accompanied by a message. Considering the importance of the measure, it passed through that body with unexampled rapidity, being adopted with but slight alterations on the 10th of March—the senate being out of session part of the time, in consequence of the death of ex-president Adams. The vote stood thirty-seven to fifteen, four members being absent.

By an article of this treaty, it was made obligatory upon the American government to withdraw its troops from the Mexican territory, within three months after the final ratification, unless prevented by the approach of the sickly season. Accordingly, the first care of the officers was the organization of military parties to collect the military stores, and transmit them, under strong escorts, to Vera Cruz, the point of embarkation for the United States. These were followed by the army in detachments, led by officers appointed for the occasion. The whole was superintended by Major-general Butler, acting commander-in-chief, assisted by the American commissioner and generals, then in Mexico. Every facility was afforded by the Mexican authorities, and by the inhabitants generally. By the end of June the whole American force had been withdrawn, a service which, although of the most arduous kind, was admirably performed by both officers and men, without any material accident.

During Mr. Polk's administration the measures of the Democratic party were fully carried out. In 1846 the tariff was reduced to a revenue standard. The sub-treasury and the warehousing system were also established in conformity with the wishes of the party whose policy the president approved. The republic incurred a large debt by the prosecution of the Mexican war, but such were the pro-

lific character of the revenues of the country, that no apprehensions were entertained.

In May, 1848, developments were made which showed the great wealth acquired by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. It was accidentally discovered that gold existed in abundance upon the banks of the Sacramento and its tributaries in California, and further investigation proved that the entire valleys of the Sacramento and San Joachin teemed with the precious metal. The intelligence created intense excitement throughout the commercial world, and every route to the new El Dorado was crowded with fortune seekers. Magical changes were effected in California. Cities and towns sprang up, and within a year and a half, what had previously been a neglected territory, was ready for admission into the Union as a populous and powerful State. An immense impulse was given to the trade and business of the United States.

Mr. Polk's eventful administration closed on the 3d of March, 1849. He did not long survive his return to Nashville, Tennessee. He was seized with chronic diarrhœa, and on the 15th of June, 1849, he expired, at the age of fifty-four years.

In person, Mr. Polk was of the average height, and rather thin. His forehead was high and full, and he had keen, blue eyes. The general expression of his countenance was that of grave, earnest thought. His private character was above reproach.

GEORGE M. DALLAS.

George Mifflin Dallas, vice-president of the United States during the administration of James K. Polk, is the son of Alexander James Dallas, a statesman who held high positions under Jefferson and Madison. He was born July 10, 1792, in the city of Philadelphia, where he received his early education. He graduated with high honours at Princeton college in 1810, commenced the study of the law in his father's office at Philadelphia, and was admitted to the bar in 1813. In the same year he accompanied Mr. Gallatin to Russia as his private secretary, when that gentleman was appointed a member of the commission to negotiate a peace under the mediation of Alexander. During his absence he visited Russia, France, England, Holland, and the Netherlands. He returned to the United States in 1814, and after assisting his father for a time in his duties

as secretary of the treasury, he commenced the practice of his profession in Philadelphia. In 1817 he was appointed the deputy of the attorney-general of Philadelphia, and soon won a high reputation as a criminal lawyer.

Mr. Dallas took an active part in politics, and became one of the leading men among the democracy of his native State. In 1825 he was elected mayor of Philadelphia, and on the accession of General Jackson, in 1829, he was appointed to the office of district-attorney, the same office which had been held by his father. This post he held until 1831, when a vacancy having occurred in the representation from Pennsylvania in the United States senate, Mr. Dallas was chosen to fill it. He took an active part in the debates of the stormy session of 1832–33. On the expiration of his term of office, in 1833, he declined a re-election, and resumed the practice of his profession. In 1837 he was appointed by Mr. Van Buren, ambassador to Russia, and remained in that country in that capacity until October, 1839, when he returned home, and once more devoted himself to the practice of the law. In 1844 he was elected vice-president of the United States, and entered upon the duties of his office in March of the following year. His term of office expired in March, 1849.*

He presided over the deliberations of the senate with great dignity and energy. The tariff of 1846 was adopted by his casting vote being given in its favour. Since 1849 he has been living in retirement at Philadelphia. Mr. Dallas is an able lawyer and an effective speaker.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

James Buchanan was secretary of state under the adminstration of Mr. Polk. He was born on the 13th of April, 1791, in Franklin county, Pennsylvania. After having passed through a regular classical and academical course of instruction, he studied and adopted the law as a profession. Having inherited a predilection for politics, he was nominated in 1814, for the house of representatives of the legislature of his native state, and was elected. He was re-elected in the year 1815. After having served two sessions, he declined another re-election. In 1820 he was elected to Congress, and took his seat in that body in December, 1821. He remained a member of

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* Men of the Time.

the house till March 4, 1831. Immediately after his fifth election, he declined further service, and retired into private life. In May, 1831, he was offered the mission to Russia by General Jackson, and accepted the proffered honour.

In the year 1834, immediately after his return from Russia, Mr. Buchanan was elected to the senate of the United States, to fill an unexpired term, rendered vacant by the resignation of Mr. Wilkins. In December, 1836, he was elected for a full term; and, in 1843, was re-elected. In March, 1845, he was appointed secretary of state by President Polk, which office he held till the close of the administration of that gentleman.* After his retirement from that position, he continued to take an active part in State and national politics, and his friends were desirous of seeing him nominated for the presidency by the national convention of the democratic party. On the accession of Mr. Pierce to the chief magistracy of the Union, he appointed Mr. Buchanan minister to England, an office for which his great diplomatic experience and ability eminently fitted him. Mr. Buchanan is neither an effective orator nor a forcible writer; but as a statesman and politician he is distinguished for boldness and sagacity.

ROBERT J. WALKER.

The secretary of the treasury under President Polk was Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi. He was born at Northumberland, Pennsylvania, in 1801. He enjoyed the advantages of an excellent education, graduated at the university of Pennsylvania, in 1819, with the first honours of his class. On leaving college, he settled in Pittsburgh, studied law, and was admitted to practice in 1821. He interested himself in politics at a very early period, and became chairman of a democratic committee during a State election, when only twenty-two years of age. A year or two later, he took part in the movement in favour of nominating General Jackson to the presidency, and was instrumental in bringing about the action of the Harrisburg convention, which presented Jackson with that office in 1824. In the spring of 1826, he moved to the State of Mississippi, where he still continued to be a zealous advocate of General Jackson's nomination, and a warm supporter of his measures, after he

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reached the presidential chair. He uniformly refused every political office which was offered him, until 1834, when he consented to become a candidate for the office of United States senator; but the Whigs having a majority in the State senate, he was not elected. In 1836, however, he was more successful, and took his seat in the senate shortly after. In that body he was one of the leaders of his party, and participated fully in the debates, uniformly supporting the men and measures of the democratic party. In March, 1845, on Mr. Polk's accession to office, Mr. Walker was called upon to take charge of the treasury department, which he administered for four years with distinguished ability. Since 1849, he has taken no active part in politics.* He is considered one of the ablest financiers in the United States.

WILLIAM L. MARCY.

THE distinguished secretary of war under President Polk, and no less distinguished secretary of state in the cabinet of President Pierce. William L. Marcy is descended from one of the early settlers of Connecticut. He was born at Southbridge, in that State, on the 12th of December, 1786. Having obtained an academical education at Leicester, he entered Brown University, at Providence, Rhode Island, and there graduated, in 1808, with the highest honours. Immediately afterward he removed to Troy, in New York, and having finished his legal course, there began the practice of the law.

When the second war with England broke out, Mr. Marcy joined the northern army as a lieutenant of volunteers. Holding this rank, he was with the American detachment, under command of Major Young, which captured a body of Canadian militia at St. Regis, on the night of October the 22d, 1812. The flag, and the prisoners, which thus fell into the hands of the Americans, were the first trophies of their success on land.

Soon after the close of the war, Mr. Marcy was appointed recorder of the city of Troy. Removed from that office in 1818, on account of his political principles, which were strongly republican, he was three years subsequently elected by the legislature comptrollor of the State. As the duties of his office compelled him to be at Albany, the seat of government, he removed to that city, where he has ever

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* Men of the Time.

since had his permanent residence. On the 31st of January, 1831, he resigned the office of associate judge of the supreme court of New York, to which he had been appointed more than a year previously, and, on the following day, was elected to the dignified position of a United States senator.

After nearly two years of distinguished service in the senate of the republic, Mr. Marcy was elected governor of New York, and entered upon the duties of that office in January, 1833. In 1834, and 1836, he was again and again chosen to fill the same high station. At the close of his third term, he was appointed by President Van Buren one of the commissioners on Mexican claims, under the convention of 1839. Having completed his duties on this commission, he returned to Albany in 1842.

When Mr. Polk was inaugurated as president, he called Mr. Marcy to a place in his cabinet, appointing him secretary of war. The war with Mexico, which presently broke out, rendered the duties of the new secretary most arduous, and, at times, harassing in the greatest degree. But though he encountered many difficulties of a peculiarly perplexing nature, he overcame them all, and won for himself an enviable reputation as an able cabinet officer.

Retiring to private life on the close of President Polk's official term, Mr. Marcy remained there till he received the appointment of secretary of state in the cabinet of President Pierce. In this station he has displayed his usual ability, and, in one instance at least, has given a marked character to the administration under which he holds his office.

Late in July, 1853, Martin Koszta—an Hungarian by nativity, but, by reason of his previous legal declaration of intention to become such, an adopted American citizen—while in the port of Smyrna, was seized and carried on board an Austrian ship of war, and there confined in irons as a traitor to the crown of Austria. Being made aware of the facts of the case, Commander Ingraham, of the United States ship of war St. Louis, demanded, and finally enforced the surrender of Koszta to the keeping of the French legation, to be yielded up only upon the written consent of the American and Austrian ministers. About the same time, Chevalier Hulseman, the Austrian charge in the United States, wrote, on the part of his government, a protest against the action of Captain Ingraham, addressed to Secretary Marcy, and requesting our government to yield up Koszta to the Austrian authorities. This brought a letter from the secretary, ably and successfully vindicating the proceedings of Ingraham and Mr. Brown, the dragoman of the American legation at Smyrna,

inspiring the civilized world with respect for the American flag and the statesmanship of our countrymen, and completely settling the Koszta dispute. It established a principle which the nations of the Old World will scarcely attempt to controvert.

Mr. Marcy is not a graceful speaker, but still an orator. His pen, however, is the weapon which he uses with grace and skill. His state papers are models of composition, and, even as such, will be long held in estimation. In private life, Mr. Marcy is highly esteemed for his integrity, his sociability, his public spirit, and his benevolence. In person, he is above the common height, stout-framed and muscular, with a strongly marked countenance, fully expressive of his determined character. His manners, though dignified, are without affectation, and are courteous in an eminent degree. As a party man, he is frank and fair, though a strict adherent to Democratic principles.

GEORGE BANCROFT.

The secretary of the navy under the first part of Mr. Polk's administration, was the distinguished historian, George Bancroft. He was born at Worcester, Massachusetts, in the year 1800. His father, who was himself an author and a doctor of divinity, gave to his son's mind the bent and disposition which in after-years conducted him to celebrity, position, and power. Not yet seventeen, Mr. Bancroft graduated at Harvard college with honours, and soon entered upon a course of literary pursuits, having as their ultimate end the profession of an historian. In 1818 he went to Europe, and there studied at Göttingen and Berlin, enjoying the high advantages of the most thorough system of instruction, and the society of distinguished and cultivated men. After an absence of four years, during which he travelled in England, Switzerland, Germany, and Italy, he returned to the United States. His first sphere of labour was naturally in accordance with his previous life, and he was appointed tutor of Greek in Harvard college. A love of intellectual independence, and the desire to engraft upon the academic system in New England the German method of instruction, led him, in company with a literary friend, to separate labours in the field of instruction, which were pursued for some time in the interior of New England, but afterward abandoned for duties of a more public and permanent character.

During the interval of severer labours, Mr. Bancroft made many contributions to American literature, especially from the stores of German thought and intellect, then comparatively sealed, even to educated men in the United States. He early adopted decided political opinions, attaching himself to the Democratic party, in whose behalf his first vote was cast. In 1826, in a public oration, afterward published, he announced as his creed "universal suffrage and uncompromising democracy;" and in the ranks of the liberal party he rose to political preferment and distinction rarely attained by one whose career at the outset was so purely that of a scholar. In 1834, Mr. Bancroft published the first volume of his "History of the United States," a work to which he had long devoted his thoughts and researches, and in which he laid the foundation of a reputation at once permanent and universal. The first and two succeeding volumes of the work, comprising the colonial history of the country, were hailed with the highest satisfaction, as exhibiting for the first time, in a profound and philosophical manner, not only the facts, but the ideas and principles of American history.

In January, 1838, Mr. Bancroft received from President Van Buren the appointment of collector of the port of Boston, a post of more responsibility than profit, which he occupied until the year 1841, discharging its duties with a fidelity which proved that a man of letters may also be a man of business, in the strictest sense of the term. In 1844 he was the candidate of the democracy of Massachusetts for the office of governor of that State; and, though the party was in the minority, his unusually large vote, greater than that which any other democratic candidate has since received, attested his popularity. In the spring of 1845, Mr. Bancroft was called by President Polk to a seat in the cabinet and the administration of the navy department, over which he presided with an energy and efficiency which, notwithstanding the short period of his connection with it, perpetuated themselves in numerous reforms and improvements, of lasting utility to the naval service. In 1846 he was appointed minister-plenipotentiary to Great Britain, and there represented the United States, until succeeded by Mr. Abbott Lawrence in 1849. In England, the *prestige* of Mr. Bancroft's literary reputation, and his high social qualities, contributed to enhance the popularity and respect which attached to him during his entire diplomatic career, which was one of complete satisfaction to the government which he represented, and to that to which he was accredited. On his return, he fixed his residence in the city of New York, and resumed more actively the prosecution of his historical labours. The

fourth volume of his history appeared early in the year 1852. It includes the opening scenes of the great drama of American independence, and amply sustains the interest and dignity of the work by which Mr. Bancroft has inseparably linked his name with the annals and the fame of his country.*

The following extract affords a fine specimen of Mr. Bancroft's style:—

"Puritanism exalted the laity. Every individual who had experienced the raptures of devotion, every believer, who, in his moments of ecstasy, had felt the assurance of the favour of God, was in his own eyes a consecrated person. For him the wonderful counsels of the Almighty had chosen a Saviour; for him the laws of nature had been suspended and controlled, the heavens had opened, earth had quaked, the sun had veiled his face, and Christ had died and had risen again; for him prophets and apostles had revealed to the world the oracles and the will of God. Viewing himself as an object of the Divine favour, and in this connection disclaiming all merit, he prostrated himself in the dust before heaven; looking out upon mankind, how could he but respect himself, whom God had chosen and redeemed? He cherished hope; he possessed faith; as he walked the earth, his heart was in the skies. Angels hovered round his path, charged to minister to his soul; spirits of darkness leagued together to tempt him from his allegiance. His burning piety could use no liturgy; his penitence could reveal his transgressions to no confessor. He knew no superior in sanctity. He could as little become the slave of a priestcraft as of a despot. He was himself a judge of the orthodoxy of the elders; and if he feared the invisible powers of the air, of darkness, and of hell, he feared nothing on earth. Puritanism constituted, not the Christian clergy, but the Christian people, the interpreter of the divine will. The voice of the majority was the voice of God; and the issue of Puritanism was therefore popular sovereignty."

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* Men of the Time.

NATHAN CLIFFORD.

Nathan Clifford, who succeeded John Y. Mason in the post of attorney-general of the United States, was born in New Hampshire, on the 18th of August, 1803. He received but a common school education, and then studied law with Josiah Quincy, Esq., contriving, in the mean time, to support himself by teaching school. In 1827, Mr. Clifford was admitted to practise law, and almost immediately he removed to Maine. Here he soon acquired influence, and was elected to the legislature. He served one term as speaker of the lower house. In 1838, Mr. Clifford was elected to a seat in the national house of representatives, where he distinguished himself as an ardent Democrat. Mr. Mason having been transferred to the post of secretary of the navy, Mr. Clifford was appointed attorney-general of the United States, which post he held until the close of President Polk's administration. Since that time, he has practised his profession with success in Maine. He is an able lawyer, and an energetic, self-made man.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

The twelfth president of the United States was the renowned general, Zachary Taylor. This celebrated man was born in Orange county, Virginia, in November, 1784.

His father, Colonel Richard Taylor, was a Virginian, and a distinguished soldier in the continental army during the war of the Revolution. He received a commission in the first regiment of troops raised by the "Old Dominion" on the breaking out of the war. He continued in the service until the army was disbanded, and retired with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He was distinguished for his intrepid courage and imperturbable coolness in battle; and possessed the faculty, so invaluable in a military leader, of inspiring his followers with the same dauntless spirit that animated his own terrible and resistless charge. After his removal to Kentucky, he was engaged in frequent contests with the Indians, until his name became a word of terror in every wigwam from the Ohio to the Lakes.

In 1785, he removed with his family to Kentucky, and settled near the Falls of the Ohio. His son Zachary was at that time nine months old. He was brought up and educated in the neighbourhood, and grew up to manhood with the yell of the savage and the crack of the rifle almost constantly ringing in his ears. General Zachary Taylor may be literally said to have been cradled in war; nor have the deeds of his subsequent life done discredit to his early training. He is a true son of the "land of blood," and has proved, in many stricken fields of death, how pure are the ancestral currents that flow through his veins.

He manifested, at an early age, a decided predilection for the profession of arms, and in 1808 was appointed a first lieutenant in the 7th regiment of the United States infantry. Not long after, he

Z. Taylor

joined the army at New Orleans, then under the command of General Wilkinson. In 1810 he was united in marriage to Miss Margaret Smith, of Maryland, a lady in all respects worthy of his affections. In the following November, he was promoted to the rank of captain. In 1811 he was placed in command of Fort Knox, on the Wabash, in the vicinity of Vincennes. From this station he was ordered to the East, a short time before the battle of Tippecanoe.

The services of Captain Taylor during the war of 1812, were of the difficult character peculiar to the frontier. He had a wily, cruel, and numerous foe to contend against, and he was only successful because of his consummate bravery and fertility of resource. The defence of Fort Harrison in September, 1812, was a brilliant exploit, illustrating the young soldier's firmness and resources. The best account of it is found in his own letter to General Harrison, which was as follows:—

Fort Harrison, September 10th.

Dear Sir—On Thursday evening, the third instant, after retreat beating, four guns were heard to fire in the direction where two young men (citizens who resided here) were making hay, about four hundred yards distance from the fort. I was immediately impressed with the idea that they were killed by the Indians, as the Prophet's party would soon be here for the purpose of commencing hostilities, and that they had been directed to leave this place, as we were about to do. I did not think it prudent to send out at that late hour of the night to see what had become of them; and their not coming in convinced me that I was right in my conjecture. I waited until eight o'clock next morning, when I sent out a corporal with a small party to find them, if it could be done without running too much risk of being drawn into an ambuscade. He soon sent back to inform me that he had found them both killed, and wished to know my further orders; I sent the cart and oxen, had them brought in and buried; they had been shot with two balls, scalped, and cut in the most shocking manner. Late in the evening of the fourth instant, old Joseph Lenar, and between thirty and forty Indians, arrived from the Prophet's town with a white flag; among whom were about ten women, and the men were composed of chiefs of the different tribes that compose the Prophet's party. A Shawanee man, that spoke good English, informed me that old Lenar intended to speak to me next morning, and try to get something to eat.

At retreat beating I examined the men's arms, and found them all in good order, and completed their cartridges to fifteen rounds per man. As I had not been able to mount a guard of more than

six privates and two non-commissioned officers for some time past, and sometimes part of them every other day, from the unhealthiness of the company, I had not conceived my force adequate to the defence of this post, should it be vigorously attacked, for some time past.

As I had just recovered from a very severe attack of the fever, I was not able to be up much through the night. After tattoo, I cautioned the guard to be vigilant, and ordered one of the non-commissioned officers, as the sentinels could not see every part of the garrison, to walk round on the inside during the whole night, to prevent the Indians taking any advantage of us, provided they had any intention of attacking us. About 11 o'clock I was awakened by the firing of one of the sentinels; I sprang up, ran out, and ordered the men to their posts; when my orderly sergeant, who had charge of the upper block-house, called out that the Indians had fired the lower block-house, (which contained the property of the contractor, which was deposited in the lower part, the upper having been assigned to a corporal and ten privates as an alarm post.) The guns had begun to fire pretty smartly from both sides. I directed the buckets to be got ready and water brought from the well, and the fire extinguished immediately, as it was perceivable at that time; but from debility or some other cause, the men were very slow in executing my orders—the word fire appeared to throw the whole of them into confusion; and by the time they had got the water and broken open the door, the fire had unfortunately communicated to a quantity of whisky (the stock having licked several holes through the lower part of the building, after the salt that was stored there, through which they had introduced the fire without being discovered, as the night was very dark,) and in spite of every exertion we could make use of, in less than a moment it ascended to the roof and baffled every effort we could make to extinguish it. As that block-house adjoined the barracks that make part of the fortifications most of the men immediately gave themselves up for lost, and I had the greatest difficulty in getting my orders executed—and, sir, what from the raging of the fire—the yelling and howling of several hundred Indians—the cries of nine women and children (a part soldiers' and a part citizens' wives, who had taken shelter in the fort,) and the despondings of so many of the men, which was worse than all—I can assure you that my feelings were unpleasant—and indeed there were not more than ten or fifteen men able to do a great deal, the others being sick or convalescent—and to add to our other misfortunes, two of the strongest men in the fort, and that I had every confidence

in, jumped the picket and left us. But my presence of mind did not for a moment forsake me. I saw, by throwing off a part of the roof that joined the block-house that was on fire, and keeping the end perfectly wet, the whole row of buildings might be saved, and leave only an entrance of eighteen or twenty feet for the entrance of the Indians after the house was consumed; and that a temporary breastwork might be executed to prevent their even entering there. I convinced the men that this might be accomplished and it appeared to inspire them with new life, and never did men act with more firmness and desperation. Those that were able (while the others kept up a constant fire from the other block-house and the two bastions) mounted the roofs of the houses, with Dr. Clarke at their head, who acted with the greatest firmness and presence of mind the whole time the attack lasted, which was seven hours, under a shower of bullets, and in less than a moment threw off as much of the roof as was necessary. This was done only with a loss of one man and two wounded, and I am in hopes neither of them dangerously; the man that was killed was a little deranged, and did not get off the house as soon as directed, or he would not have been hurt—and although the barracks were several times in a blaze, and an immense quantity of fire against them, the men used such exertions that they kept it under, and before day raised a temporary breastwork as high as a man's head, although the Indians continued to pour in a heavy fire of ball and an innumerable quantity of arrows during the whole time the attack lasted in every part of the parade. I had but one other man killed, nor any other wounded inside the fort, and he lost his life by being too anxious—he got into one of the *gallies* in the bastions, and fired over the pickets, and called out to his comrades that he had killed an Indian, and neglecting to stoop down in an instant he was shot dead. One of the men that jumped the pickets, returned an hour before day, and running up toward the gate, begged for God's sake for it to be opened. I suspected it to be a stratagem of the Indians to get in, as I did not recollect the voice. I directed the men in the bastion, where I happened to be, to shoot him, let him be who he would, and one of them fired at him, but fortunately he ran up to the other bastion, where they knew his voice, and Dr. Clarke directed him to lie down close to the pickets behind an empty barrel that happened to be there, and at daylight I had him let in. His arm was broke in a most shocking manner; which he says was done by the Indians—which I suppose was the cause of his returning —I think it probable that he will not recover. The other they caught about one hundred and thirty yards from the garrison, and

cut him all to pieces. After keeping up a constant fire until about six o'clock the next morning, which we began to return with some effect after daylight, they removed out of the reach of our guns. A party of them drove up the horses that belonged to the citizens here, and as they could not catch them very readily, shot the whole of them in our sight, as well as a number of their hogs. They drove off the whole of the cattle, which amounted to sixty-five head, as well as the public oxen. I had the vacancy filled up before night (which was made by the burning of the block-house) with a strong row of pickets, which I got by pulling down the guard-house. We lost the whole of our provisions, but must make out to live upon green corn until we can get a supply, which I am in hopes will not be long. I believe the whole of the Miamies or Weas were among the Prophet's party, as one chief gave his orders in that language, which resembled Stone Eater's voice, and I believe Negro Legs was there likewise. A Frenchman here understands their different languages, and several of the Miamies or Weas, that have been frequently here, were recognised by the Frenchman and soldiers next morning. The Indians suffered smartly, but were so numerous as to take off all that were shot. They continued with us until the next morning, but made no further attempt upon the fort, nor have we seen any thing more of them since. I have delayed informing you of my situation, as I did not like to weaken the garrison, and I looked for some person from Vincennes, and none of my men were acquainted with the woods, and therefore would either have to take the road or the river, which I was fearful was guarded by small parties of Indians that would not dare attack a company of rangers that was on a scout; but being disappointed, I have at length determined to send a couple of my men by water, and am in hopes they will arrive safe. I think it would be best to send the provisions under a pretty strong escort, as the Indians may attempt to prevent their coming. If you carry on an expedition against the Prophet this fall, you ought to be well provided with every thing, as you may calculate on having every inch of ground disputed between this and there that they can defend with advantage.

Z. Taylor.

His Excellency Governor Harrison.

Soon after this most thrilling assault and defence, which gained for Captain Taylor high honour, the brave garrison was relieved by the arrival of a body of volunteers.

Major Taylor continued actively engaged in various departments

of service in the West, constantly extending the sphere of his reputation and influence, until 1814, when he was placed temporarily at the head of the troops in Missouri, until the arrival of General Howard, the commanding officer; and was busily employed on that frontier till the month of August.

In October, Major Taylor was recalled to St. Louis by the sudden death of General Howard; and in November, accompanied Colonel Russell several hundred miles up the Missouri, to relieve a small settlement much exposed to Indian depredations. In December he was transferred to Vincennes, and assumed the command of the troops in Indiana, where he remained until the termination of the war. A short time before the conclusion of peace he had been promoted to a majority in the 26th regiment of infantry, and ordered to join the regiment at Plattsburg; but when the army was disbanded, he was retained on the peace establishment with only the rank of captain. Declining to come into this arrangement, he resigned his commission, and retired to his farm near Louisville.

In 1816 he was reinstated in the army with his original rank, and placed in command of Fort Crawford, at the mouth of Fox River, which empties in Green Bay. He continued in the command of various posts in the West until the breaking out of the Black Hawk war in 1832, when he was again called into active service. In 1832 he was promoted to the rank of colonel, and served under General Atkinson in his various campaigns against the Indians. It is scarcely necessary to say that, in this service, he fully sustained his high military reputation. He commanded the regulars in the bloody and decisive battle of the Wisconsin, which resulted in the capture of Black Hawk and the Prophet, and terminated the war.

In 1832, Taylor was advanced to the rank of colonel. On the commencement of war in Florida he was ordered on service in that district. This contest was, as every one knows, what General Jackson calls his own Seminole war, "a war of movements." It consisted almost entirely of pursuits and attempts to surround the Indians, which they were generally successful in eluding.

Colonel Taylor, however, was more fortunate than his predecessors; and in December, 1837, he was able to bring on a general action at Okee Chobee, which is best described in his own very able despatch, as follows:—

HEAD-QUARTERS, FIRST BRIGADE, ARMY SOUTH OF THE WITHLACOOCHEE,
Fort Gardner, Jan. 4, 1838.

Sir—On the 19th ultimo I received at this place a communication from Major-general Jessup, informing me that all hopes of bringing

the war to a close by negotiation, through the interference or mediation of the Cherokee delegation, were at an end, Sam Jones, with the Mickasukies, having determined to fight it out to the last; and directing me to proceed with the least possible delay against any portion of the enemy I might hear of within striking distance, and to destroy or capture them.

After leaving two officers and an adequate force for the protection of my depot, I marched the next morning with twelve days' rations, (my means of transportation not enabling me to carry more,) with the balance of my command, consisting of Captain Munroe's company of the 4th artillery, total, thirty-five men; the 1st infantry, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Davenport, one hundred and ninety-seven strong; the 4th infantry, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Foster, two hundred and seventy-four; the 6th infantry, under Lieutenant-colonel Thompson, two hundred and twenty-one; the Missouri volunteers, one hundred and eighty; Morgan's spies, forty-seven; pioneers, thirty; pontoneers, thirteen; and seventy Delaware Indians; making a force, exclusive of officers, of one thousand and thirty-two men; the greater part of the Shawnees having been detached, and the balance refusing to accompany me, under the pretext that a number of them were sick, and the remainder were without moccasins.

I moved down the west side of the Kissimmee, in a south-easterly course, toward Lake Istopoga, for the following reasons: First, because I knew that a portion of the hostiles were to be found in that direction; second, if General Jessup should fall in with the Mickasukies and drive them, they might attempt to elude him by crossing the Kissimmee from the east to the west side of the peninsula, between this and its entrance into Okee Chobee, in which case I might be near at hand to intercept him; third, to overawe and induce such of the enemy who had been making propositions to give themselves up, and who appeared very slow, if not to hesitate, in complying with their promises on that head, to surrender at once; and lastly, I deemed it advisable to erect block-houses, and a small picket-work on the Kissimmee, for a third depot, some forty or fifty miles below this, and obtain a knowledge of the intervening country, as I had no guide who could be relied on, and by this means open a communication with Colonel Smith, who was operating up the Caloosehatchee, or Sanybel River, under my orders.

Late in the evening of the first day's march, I met the Indian chief Jumper, with his family, and a part of his band, consisting of fifteen men, a part of them with families, and a few negroes—in all,

sixty-three souls—on his way to give himself up, in conformity to a previous arrangement I had entered into with him. They were conducted by Captain Parks, and a few Shawnees. He (Parks) is an active and intelligent half-breed, who is at the head of the friendly Indians, both Shawnees and Delawares, and whom I had employed to arrange and bring in Jumper, and as many of his people as he could prevail on to come in. We encamped that night near the same spot; and the next morning, having ordered Captain Parks to join me, and take command of the Delawares, and having despatched Jumper in charge of some Shawnees to this place, and so on to Fort Frazer, I continued my march, after having sent forward three friendly Seminoles to gain intelligence as to the position of the enemy.

About noon on the same day, I sent forward one battalion of Gentry's regiment under command of Lieutenant-colonel Price, to pick up any stragglers that might fall in his way; to encamp two or three miles in advance of the main force; to act with great circumspection, and to communicate promptly any occurrence that might take place in his vicinity important for me to know. About 10 P. M., I received a note from the colonel, stating that the three Seminoles sent forward in the morning had returned; that they had been at or where Alligator had encamped, twelve or fifteen miles in his advance; that he (Alligator) had left there with a part of his family four days before, under the pretext of separating his relations, &c. from the Mickasukies, preparatory to his surrendering with them; that there were several families remaining at the camp referred to, who wished to give themselves up, and would remain there until we took possession of them, unless they were forcibly carried off that night by the Mickasukies, who were encamped at no great distance from them.

In consequence of this intelligence, after directing Lieutenant-colonel Davenport to follow me early in the morning with the infantry, a little after midnight I put myself at the head of the residue of the mounted men, joined Lieutenant-colonel Price, proceeded on, crossing Istopoga outlet, and soon after daylight took possession of the encampment referred to, where I found the inmates, who had not been disturbed. They consisted of an old man and two young ones, and several women and children, amounting in all to twenty-two individuals. The old man informed me that Alligator was very anxious to separate his people from the Mickasukies, who were encamped on the opposite side of the Kissimmee, distant about twenty miles, where they would fight us. I sent him to Alligator to say to him, if he was sincere in his professions, to meet me the next day at the

Kissimmee, where the trail I was marching on crossed, and where I should halt.

As soon as the infantry came up, I moved on to the place designated, which I reached late that evening, and where I encamped. About 11 P.M., the old Indian returned, bringing a very equivocal message from Alligator, whom, he stated, he had met accidentally. Also, that the Mickasukies were still encamped where they had been for some days, and where they were determined to fight us.

I determined at once on indulging them as soon as practicable. Accordingly, the next morning, after laying out a small stockade work for the protection of a future depot, in order to enable me to move with the greatest celerity, I deposited the whole of my heavy baggage, including artillery, &c., and having provisioned the command, to include the 26th, after leaving Captain Munroe with his company, the pioneer, pontoneers, with eighty-five sick and disabled infantry, and a portion of the friendly Indians, who alleged that they were unable to march farther, crossed the Kissimmee, taking the old Indian as a guide who had been captured the day before, and who accompanied us with great apparent reluctance in pursuit of the enemy, and early the next day reached Alligator's encampment, situated on the edge of Cabbage-tree hammock, in the midst of a large prairie; from the appearance of which, and other encampments in the vicinity, and the many evidences of slaughtered cattle, there must have been several hundred individuals.

At another small hammock at no great distance from Alligator's encampment, and surrounded by a swamp, impassable for mounted men, the spies surprised an encampment containing one old man, four young men, and some women and children. One of the party immediately raised a white flag, when the men were taken possession of and brought across the swamp to the main body. I proceeded with an interpreter to meet them. They proved to be Seminoles, and professed to be friendly. They stated that they were preparing to come in; they had just slaughtered a number of cattle, and were employed in drying and jerking the same. They also informed me that the Mickasukies, headed by A-vi-a-ka, (Sam Jones,) were some ten or twelve miles distant, encamped in a swamp, and were prepared to fight.

Although I placed but little confidence in their professions of friendship, or their intentions of coming in, yet I had no time to look up their women and children, who had fled and concealed themselves in the swamp, or to encumber myself with them in the situation in which I then was.

Accordingly, I released the old man, who promised that he would collect all the women and children, and take them in to Captain Munroe, at the Kissimmee, the next day. I also dismissed the old man who had acted as guide thus far, supplying his place with the four able warriors who had been captured that morning.

These arrangements being made, I moved under their guidance for the camp of the Mickasukies. Between two and three P. M., we reached a very dense cypress swamp, through which we were compelled to pass, and in which our guides informed us we might be attacked. After making the necessary dispositions for battle, it was ascertained that there was no enemy to oppose us. The army crossed over and encamped for the night, it being too late. During the passage of the rear, Captain Parks, who was in advance with a few friendly Indians, fell in with two of the enemy's spies, between two or three miles of our camp—one on horseback, the other on foot —and succeeded in capturing the latter. He was an active young warrior, armed with an excellent rifle, fifty balls in his pouch, and an adequate proportion of powder. This Indian confirmed the information which had previously been received from the other Indians, and in addition stated that a large body of the Seminoles, headed by John Cohua, Co-a-coo-chee, and, no doubt, Alligator, with other chiefs, were encamped five or six miles from us, near the Mickasukies, with a cypress swamp and dense hammock between them and the latter.

The army moved forward at daylight the next morning, and, after marching five or six miles, reached the camp of the Seminoles on the borders of another cypress swamp, which must have contained several hundred, and bore evident traces of having been abandoned in a great hurry, as the fires were still burning, and quantities of beef lying on the ground unconsumed.

Here the troops were again disposed of in order of battle, but we found no enemy to oppose us, and the command was crossed over about 11 A. M., when we entered a large prairie in our front, on which two or three hundred head of cattle were grazing, and a number of Indian ponies. Here another young Indian warrior was captured, armed and equipped as the former. He pointed out a dense hammock on our right, about a mile distant, in which he said the hostiles were situated and waiting to give us battle.

At this place the final disposition was made to attack them, which was in two lines; the volunteers under Gentry, and Morgan's spies, to form the first line in extended order, who were instructed to enter the hammock, and in the event of being attacked and hard pressed,

were to fall back in rear of the regular troops, out of reach of the enemy's fire; the second line was composed of the 4th and 6th infantry, who were instructed to sustain the volunteers, the 1st infantry being held in reserve.

Moving on in the direction of the hammock, after proceeding about a quarter of a mile, we reached the swamp which separated us from the enemy, three-quarters of a mile in breadth, being totally impassable for horse, and nearly so for foot, covered with a thick growth of saw-grass five feet high, about knee deep in mud and water, which extended to the left as far as the eye could reach, and to the right to a part of the swamp and hammock we had just crossed, through which ran a deep creek. At the edge of the swamp all the men were dismounted, and the horses and baggage left under a suitable guard. Captain Allen was detached with the two companies of mounted infantry to examine the swamp and hammock to the right; and, in case he should not find the enemy in that direction, was to return to the baggage, and, in the event of his hearing a heavy firing, was immediately to join me.

After making these arrangements, I crossed the swamp in the order stated. On reaching the borders of the hammock, the volunteers and spies received a heavy fire from the enemy, which was returned by them for a short time, when their gallant commander, Colonel Gentry fell, mortally wounded. They mostly broke, and instead of forming in the rear of the regulars, as had been directed, they retired across the swamp to their baggage and horses, nor could they be again brought into action as a body, although efforts were made repeatedly by my staff to induce them to do so.

The enemy, however, were promptly checked and driven back by the 4th and 6th infantry, which in truth might be said to be a moving battery. The weight of the enemy's fire was principally concentrated on five companies of the 6th infantry, which not only stood firm, but continued to advance until their gallant commander, Lieutenant-colonel Thompson, and his adjutant, Lieutenant Center, were killed; and every officer, with one exception, as well as most of the non-commissioned officers, including the sergeant-major and four of the orderly sergeants, killed and wounded of those companies; when that portion of the regiment retired to a short distance and were again formed, one of these companies having but four members left untouched.

Lieutenant-colonel Foster, with six companies, amounting in all to one hundred and sixty men, gained the hammock in good order, where he was joined by Captain Noel, with the two remaining com-

panies of the 6th infantry, and Captain Gillam, of Gentry's volunteers, with a few additional men, and continued to drive the enemy for a considerable time, and by a change of front separated his line, and continued to drive him until he reached the great Lake Okee-Chobee, which was in the rear of the enemy's position, and on which their encampment extended for more than a mile. As soon as I was informed that Captain Allen was advancing, I ordered the first infantry to move to the left, gain the enemy's right flank and turn it, which order was executed in the promptest manner possible; and as soon as that regiment got in position, the enemy gave one fire and retreated, being pursued by the 1st, 4th, and 6th, and some of the volunteers who had joined them, until near night, and until these troops were nearly exhausted, and the enemy driven in all directions.

The action was a severe one, and continued from half-past twelve, until after three P. M., a part of the time very close and severe. We suffered much, having twenty-six killed and one hundred and twelve wounded, among whom are some of our most valuable officers. The hostiles probably suffered, all things considered, equally with ourselves, they having left ten dead on the ground, besides, doubtless, carrying off many more, as is customary with them when practicable.

As soon as the enemy were completely broken, I turned my attention to taking care of the wounded, to facilitate their removal to my baggage, where I ordered an encampment to be formed; I directed Captain Taylor to cross over to the spot, and employ every individual whom he might find there in constructing a small footway across the swamp; this, with great exertions, was completed in a short time after dark, when all the dead and wounded were carried over in litters made for that purpose, with one exception, a private of the 4th infantry, who was killed, and could not be found.

And here, I trust, I may be permitted to say that I experienced one of the most trying scenes of my life, and he who could have looked on it with indifference, his nerves must have been very differently organized from my own; besides the killed, there lay one hundred and twelve wounded officers and soldiers, who had accompanied me one hundred and forty-five miles, most of the way through an unexplored wilderness without guides, who had so gallantly beaten the enemy, under my orders, in his strongest position, and who had to be conveyed back through swamps and hammocks, from whence we set out, without any apparent means of doing so. This service, however, was encountered and overcome, and they have been conveyed thus far, and proceeded on to Tampa Bay on rude litters, constructed with the axe and knife alone, with poles and dry hides—

the latter being found in great abundance at the encampment of the hostiles. The litters were conveyed on the backs of our weak and tottering horses, aided by the residue of the command, with more ease and comfort to the sufferers than I could have supposed, and with as much as they could have been in ambulances of the most improved and modern construction.

The day after the battle we remained at our encampment, occupied in taking care of the wounded, and in the sad office of interring the dead; also, in preparing litters for the removal of the wounded, and collecting with a portion of the mounted men the horses and cattle in the vicinity belonging to the enemy, of which we found about one hundred of the former, many of them saddled, and nearly three hundred of the latter.

We left our encampment on the morning of the 27th for the Kissimmee, where I had left my heavy baggage, which place we reached about noon on the 28th, after leaving two companies and a few Indians to garrison the stockade, which I found nearly completed on my return, by that active and vigilant officer, Captain Munroe, 4th artillery. I left there the next morning for this place, where I arrived on the 31st, and sent forward the wounded next day to Tampa Bay, with the 4th and 6th infantry, the former to halt at Fort Frazer, remaining here myself with the 1st, in order to make preparations to take the field again as soon as my horses can be recruited, most of which have been sent to Tampa, and my supplies in a sufficient state of forwardness to justify the measure.

In speaking of the command, I can only say, that so far as the regular troops are concerned, no one could have been more efficiently sustained than I have been from the commencement of the campaign; and I am certain that they will always be willing and ready to discharge any duty that may be assigned them.

To Lieutenant-colonel Davenport, and the officers and soldiers of the 1st infantry, I feel under many obligations for the manner in which they have on all occasions discharged their duty; and although held in reserve and not brought into battle until near its close, it evinced, by its eagerness to engage, and the promptness and good order with which they entered the hammock when the order was given for them to do so, is the best evidence that they would have sustained their own characters, as well as that of the regiment, had it been their fortune to have been placed in the hottest of the battle.

The 4th infantry, under their gallant leader, Lieutenant-colonel Foster, was among the first to gain the hammock, and maintained this position, as well as driving a portion of the enemy before him,

until he arrived on the borders of Lake Okee-Chobee, which was in the rear, and continued the pursuit until near night. Lieutenant-colonel Foster, who was favourably noticed for his gallantry and good conduct in nearly all the engagements on the Niagara frontier during the late war with Great Britain, by his several commanders, as well as in the different engagements with the Indians in this territory, never acted a more conspicuous part than in the action of the 25th ult.; he speaks in the highest terms of the conduct of Brevet-major Graham, his second in command, as also the officers and soldiers of the 4th infantry, who were engaged in the action. Captain Allen, with his two mounted companies of the 4th infantry, sustained his usual character for promptness and efficiency. Lieutenant Hooper, of the 4th regiment, was wounded through the arm, but continued on the field at the head of his company, until the termination of the battle.

I am not sufficiently master of words to express my admiration of the gallantry and steadiness of the officers and soldiers of the 6th regiment of infantry. It was their fortune to bear the brunt of the battle. The report of the killed and wounded, which accompanies this, is more conclusive evidence of their merits than any thing I can say. After five companies of this regiment, against which the enemy directed the most deadly fire, were nearly cut up, there being only four men left uninjured in one of them, and every officer and orderly sergeant of those companies, with one exception, were either killed or wounded, Captain Noel, with the remaining two companies, his own company, "K," and Crossman's, "B," commanded by Second Lieutenant Woods, which was the left of the regiment, formed on the right of the 4th infantry, entered the hammock with that regiment, and continued the fight and the pursuit until its termination. It is due to Captain Andrews and Lieutenant Walker, to say, they commanded two of the five companies mentioned above, and they continued to direct them until they were both severely wounded and carried from the field; the latter received three separate balls.

The Missouri volunteers, under the command of Colonel Gentry, and Morgan's spies, who formed the first line, and, of course, were the first engaged, acted as well, or even better, than as troops of that description generally do; they received and returned the enemy's fire with spirit for some time, when they broke and retired, with the exception of Captain Gillam and a few of his company, and Lieutenant Blakey, also with a few men, who joined the regulars and acted with them until after the close of the battle, but not until they had suffered severely; the commanding officer of the volunteers,

Colonel Gentry, being mortally wounded while leading on his men, and encouraging them to enter the hammock and come to close quarters with the enemy; his son, an interesting youth, eighteen or nineteen years of age, sergeant-major of the regiment, was severely wounded at the same moment.

Captain Childs, Lieutenants Rogers and Flanagan, of Gentry's regiment, Acting Major Sconce, and Lieutenants Hase and Gordon, of the spies, were wounded while encouraging their men to a discharge of their duty.

The volunteers and spies having, as before stated, fallen back to the baggage, could not again be formed and brought up to the hammock in any thing like order; but a number of them crossed over individually, and aided in conveying the wounded across the swamp to the hammock, among whom were Captain Curd, and several other officers, whose names I do not now recollect.

To my personal staff, consisting of First Lieutenant J. M. Hill, of the 2d, and First Lieutenant George H. Griffin, of the 6th infantry, the latter aid-de-camp to Major-general Gaines, and a volunteer in Florida, from his staff, I feel under the greatest obligations for the promptness and efficiency with which they have sustained me throughout the campaign, and more particularly for their good conduct, and the alacrity with which they aided me and conveyed my orders during the action of the 25th ult.

Captain Taylor, commissary of subsistence, who was ordered to join General Jessup at Tampa Bay, as chief of the subsistence department, and who was ordered by him to remain with his column until he, General Jessup, joined it, although no command was assigned Captain Taylor, he greatly exerted himself in trying to rally and bring back the volunteers into action, as well as discharging other important duties which were assigned to him during the action.

Myself, as well as all who witnessed the attention and ability displayed by Surgeon Satterlee, medical director on this side the peninsula, assisted by Assistant Surgeon McLaren and Simpson, of the medical staff of the army, and Drs. Hannah and Cooke, of the Missouri volunteers, in ministering to the wounded, as well as their uniform kindness to them on all occasions, can never cease to be referred to by me without the most pleasing and grateful recollections.

The quartermaster's department, under the direction of that efficient officer, Major Brant, and his assistant, Lieutenant Babbitt, have done every thing that could be accomplished to throw forward from Tampa Bay, and keep up supplies of provisions, forage, &c., with the limited means at their disposal. Assistant Commissaries

Lieutenants Harrison, stationed at Fort Gardner, and McClure, at Fort Fraser, have fully met my expectations in discharge of the various duties connected with their department, as well as those assigned them in the quartermaster's department.

This column, in six weeks, penetrated one hundred and fifty miles into the enemy's country, opened roads, and constructed bridges and causeways when necessary, on the greater portion of the route, established two depots, and the necessary defences for the same, and finally overtook and beat the enemy in his strongest position. The results of which movement and battle have been the capture of thirty of the hostiles, the coming in and surrendering of more than one hundred and fifty Indians and negroes, mostly the former, including the chiefs Ou-la-too-chee, Tus-ta-nug-gee, and other principal men, and capturing and driving out of the country six hundred head of cattle, upward of one hundred head of horses, besides obtaining a thorough knowledge of the country through which we operated, a greater portion of which was entirely unknown, except to the enemy.

Colonel Gentry died in a few hours after the battle, much regretted by the army, and will be, doubtless, by all who knew him, as his State did not contain a braver man or a better citizen.

It is due to his rank and talents, as well as to his long and important services, that I particularly mention Lieutenant-colonel A. R. Thompson, of the 6th infantry, who fell, in the discharge of his duty, at the head of his regiment. He was in feeble health, brought on by exposure to this climate during the past summer, refusing to leave the country while his regiment continued in it. Although he received two balls from the fire of the enemy, early in the action, which wounded him severely, yet he appeared to disregard them, and continued to give his orders with the same coolness that he would have done had his regiment been under review, or on any parade duty. Advancing, he received a third ball, which at once deprived him of life; his last words were, "Keep steady, men, charge the hammock—remember the regiment to which you belong." I had known Colonel Thompson personally only for a short time, and the more I knew of him the more I wished to know; and had his life been spared, our acquaintance, no doubt, would have ripened into the closest friendship. Under such circumstances, there are few, if any, other than his bereaved wife, mother, and sisters, who more deeply and sincerely lament his loss, or who will longer cherish his memory than myself.

Captain Van Swearingen, Lieutenant Brooke, and Lieutenant and Adjutant Center, of the same regiment, who fell on that day, had

no superiors of their years in service, and, in point of chivalry, ranked among the first in the army or nation; besides their pure and disinterested courage, they possessed other qualifications, which qualified them to fill the highest grades of their profession, which, no doubt, they would have attained and adorned had their lives been spared. The two former served with me on another arduous and trying campaign, and on every occasion, whether in the camp, on the march, or on the field of battle, discharged their various duties to my entire satisfaction.

With greatest respect, I have the honour to be, sir,
Your most obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR, Col. Com'g.

To Brigadier-general R. JONES, Adjutant-general, U. S. A.
Washington, D. C.

The battle of Okee-Chobee was one of the most obstinate actions in the protracted Florida war. The government appreciated the achievement of the troops and their gallant commander. Mr. Poinsett, secretary of war, gave Colonel Taylor the warmest commendation in a report to Congress, and he was immediately promoted to the brevet rank of brigadier-general, with the chief command in Florida. He fixed his head-quarters in the neighbourhood of Tampa Bay, from which point he directed the difficult movements which the nature of the war required. He was relieved from this arduous service in 1840, when General Armistead was ordered to take the command.

Upon the close of the Seminole war it seems to have been the intention of the general to retire from military life; in this, however, he was not indulged by government. In 1841, not long after his arrival at New Orleans, he was ordered to relieve General Arbuckle in the command of the second department on the Arkansas River. While at Little Rock, on his way to Fort Gibson, he was tendered a public dinner by the citizens of that town, as an expression of esteem for his "personal worth and meritorious public services." In a brief note the general declined this invitation, on account of the journey being already protracted an unusual length of time, and of his being anxious to proceed on as rapidly as possible to his destined post.

General Taylor now took command of the southern department of the army, including the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia, and fixed his head-quarters at Fort Jessup, Louisiana. He was not called into active service again until the spring of 1845, when President Polk, in anticipation of an invasion of Texas, ordered

him to lead a "corps of observation" to Corpus Christi, west of the Nueces, and to repel any invasive attempt of the Mexicans. His subsequent glorious achievements in the war which began in May, 1846, have been narrated somewhat in detail in our account of the administration of President Polk.

But much remains to be told of those trials, exertions, and achievements of General Taylor, which raised him to such a lofty pitch of renown. Whatever may have been the causes of the war, or the manner in which it was brought about, it was the duty of General Taylor to act up to his instructions, and defend the honour of his country, if interrupted by a foreign force in the performance of his duties.

When General Taylor moved forward and took a position upon the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras, his troops, though few in number, had every confidence in his ability to maintain that position. The people of the United States, however, were not so well acquainted with the general, and the government was censured for having sent him on such an errand with such a small force. The general never seemed to entertain any fears as to the result. The battle of Palo Alto gave the first indication of the powers of the commander and the courage of the troops. The exact force of the general in that battle was one hundred and seventeen officers, and two thousand one hundred and eleven men. The Mexicans under General Arista amounted to more than six thousand men. The modest despatches of General Taylor have been greatly admired. That giving an account of the battle of Palo Alto is as follows:—

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp at Palo Alto, Texas, May 9th, 1846.

Sir—I have the honour to report that I was met near this place yesterday, on my march from Point Isabel, by the Mexican forces, and after an action of about five hours, dislodged them from their position and encamped upon the field. Our artillery, consisting of two eighteen-pounders and two light batteries, was the arm chiefly engaged, and to the excellent manner in which it was manœuvred and served is our success mainly due.

The strength of the enemy is believed to have been about six thousand men, with seven pieces of artillery and eight hundred cavalry. His loss is probably at least one hundred killed. Our strength did not exceed, all told, twenty-three hundred men, while our loss was comparatively trifling—four men killed, three officers and thirty-seven men wounded, several of the latter mortally. I regret to say that Major Ringgold, third artillery, and Captain Page,

fourth infantry, are severely wounded; Lieutenant Luther, second artillery, slightly so.

The enemy has fallen back, and it is believed has repassed the river. I have advanced parties now thrown forward in his direction, and shall move the main body immediately.

In the haste of this first report, I can only say that the officers and men behaved in the most admirable manner throughout the action. I shall have the pleasure of making a more detailed report, when those of the different commanders shall be received.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,
Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A. Commanding.

The ADJUTANT-GENERAL U. S. ARMY.
Washington, D. C.

The battle of Resaca de la Palma followed. Of this action General Taylor gives the following modest account:—

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp near Fort Brown, Texas, May, 17th, 1846

Sir—In submitting a more minute report of the affair of "Resaca de la Palma," I have the honour to state, that early on the morning of the 9th instant, the enemy, who had encamped near the field of the day previous, was discovered moving by his left flank, perhaps to gain a new position on the road to Matamoras, and there again resist our advance.

I ordered the supply train to be strongly parked at its position, and left with it four pieces of artillery—the two eighteen-pounders which had done such good service on the preceding day, and two twelve-pounders which had not been in the action. The wounded officers and men were at the same time sent back to Point Isabel. * *

Captain McCall's command became at once engaged with the enemy, while the light artillery, though in a very exposed position, did great execution. The enemy had at least eight pieces of artillery, and maintained an incessant fire upon our advance. * * * The enemy was at last completely driven from his position on the right of the road, and retreated precipitately, leaving baggage of every description. The fourth infantry took possession of a camp where the head-quarters of the Mexican general-in-chief were established. All his official correspondence was captured at this place.

The strength of our marching force on this day was one hundred and seventy-three officers, and two thousand and ninety-three men—aggregate two thousand two hundred and twenty-two. The actual number engaged with the enemy did not exceed seventeen hundred.

Our loss was three officers killed, thirty-six men killed, and seventy-one wounded. Among the officers killed I have to report the loss of Lieutenant Inge, 2d dragoons, who fell at the head of his platoon, while gallantly charging the enemy's battery; of Lieutenant Cochrane, of the 4th, and Lieutenant Chadbourne, of the 8th infantry, who likewise met their death in the thickest of the fight. The officers wounded were Lieutenant-colonel Payne, inspector-general; Lieutenant Dobbins, 3d infantry, serving with the light infantry advance, slightly; Lieutenant-colonel McIntosh, 5th infantry, severely twice; Captain Hooe, 5th infantry, severely, (right arm since amputated;) Lieutenant Fowler, 5th infantry, slightly; Captain Montgomery, 8th infantry, slightly; Lieutenants Gates and Jordan, 8th infantry, severely, (each twice;) Lieutenants Selden, Maclay, Burbank, and Morris, 8th infantry, slightly.

I have no accurate data from which to estimate the enemy's force on this day. He is known to have been reinforced after the action of the 8th, both by cavalry and infantry, and no doubt to an extent equal to his loss on that day. It is probable that six thousand men were opposed to us, and in a position chosen by themselves, and strongly defended with artillery. The enemy's loss was very great. Nearly two hundred of his dead were buried by us on the days succeeding the battle. His loss in killed and wounded and missing in the two affairs of the 8th and 9th is, I think, moderately estimated at one thousand men.

Our victory has been decisive. A small force has overcome immense odds of the best troops that Mexico can furnish—veteran regiments, perfectly equipped and appointed. Eight pieces of artillery, several colours and standards, a great number of prisoners, including fourteen officers, and a large amount of baggage and public property, have fallen into our hands. * * * I take this occasion to mention generally the devotion to duty of the medical staff of the army, who have been untiring in their exertions both in the field and in the hospitals, to alleviate the sufferings of the wounded of both armies. * * *

One regimental colour (battalion of Tampico) and many standards and guidons of cavalry were taken at the affair of the 9th. I would be pleased to receive your instructions as to the disposition to be made of these trophies; whether they shall be sent to Washington, &c.

I am very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A. Commanding.

The ADJUTANT-GENERAL OF THE ARMY.
Washington, D. C.

The capture of Matamoras followed soon after these brilliant victories, and General Taylor obtained a foothold on Mexican soil. Colonel Twiggs was appointed governor, and the following proclamation, which does honour to the head and heart of General Taylor, was issued:—

A PROCLAMATION

By the General commanding the Army of the United States of America, to the People of Mexico.

After many years of patient endurance, the United States are at length constrained to acknowledge that a war now exists between our government and the government of Mexico. For many years our citizens have been subjected to repeated insults and injuries, our vessels and cargoes have been seized and confiscated, our merchants have been plundered, maimed, imprisoned, without cause and without reparation. At length your government acknowledged the justice of our claims, and agreed by treaty to make satisfaction by payment of several millions of dollars; but this treaty has been violated by your rulers, and the stipulated payment has been withheld. Our late effort to terminate all the difficulties by peaceful negotiation has been rejected by the dictator Paredes, and our minister of peace, whom your rulers had agreed to receive, has been refused a hearing. He has been treated with indignity and insult, and Paredes has announced that war exists between us. This war, thus first proclaimed by him, has been acknowledged as an existing fact by our president and Congress with perfect unanimity, and will be prosecuted with vigour and energy against your army and rulers; but those of the Mexican people who remain neutral will not be molested.

Your government is in the hands of tyrants and usurpers. They have abolished your state governments, they have overthrown your federal constitution, they have deprived you of the right of suffrage, destroyed the liberty of the press, despoiled you of your arms, and reduced you to a state of absolute dependence upon the power of a military dictator. Your armies and rulers extort from the people by grievous taxation, by forced loans and military seizures, the very money which sustains the usurpers in their power. Being disarmed, you were left defenceless, and as an easy prey to the savage Camanches, who not only destroy your lives and property, but drive into captivity more horrible than death itself your wives and children. It is your military rulers who have reduced you to this deplorable condition. It is these tyrants and their corrupt and cruel satellites, gorged with the people's treasure, by whom you are thus oppressed

and impoverished, some of whom have boldly advocated a monarchical government, and would place a European prince upon the throne of Mexico. We come to obtain reparation for repeated wrongs and injuries; we come to obtain indemnity for the past, and security for the future; we come to overthrow the tyrants who have destroyed your liberties; but we come to make no war upon the people of Mexico, nor upon any form of free government they may choose to select for themselves.

It is our wish to see you liberated from despots, to drive back the savage Camanches, to prevent the renewal of their assaults, and to compel them to restore to you from captivity your long lost wives and children. Your religion, your altars, your churches, the property of your churches and citizens, the emblems of your faith and its ministers, shall be protected, and remain inviolable—hundreds of our army, and hundreds of thousands of our citizens are members of the Catholic church. In every State, and in nearly every city and village of our union, Catholic churches exist, and the priests perform their holy functions in peace and security under the sacred guarantee of our constitution. We come among the people of Mexico as friends and republican brethren, and all who receive us as such shall be protected, while all who are seduced into the army of your dictator shall be treated as enemies. We shall want from you nothing but food for our army, and for this you shall always be paid in cash the full value. It is the settled policy of your tyrants to deceive you in regard to the character and policy of our government and people. These tyrants fear the example of our free institutions, and constantly endeavour to misrepresent our purposes, and inspire you with hatred for your republican brethren of the American union. Give us but the opportunity to undeceive you, and you will soon learn that all the representations of Paredes were false, and were only made to induce you to consent to the establishment of a despotic government. In your struggle for liberty with the Spanish monarchy, thousands of our countrymen risked their lives and shed their blood in your defence. Our own commodore, the gallant Porter, maintained in triumph your flag upon the ocean, and our government was the first to acknowledge your independence. With pride and pleasure we enrolled your name on the list of independent republics, and sincerely desired that you might in peace and prosperity enjoy all the blessings of free government. Success on the part of your tyrants against the army of the Union is impossible; but if they could succeed, it would only be to enable them to fill your towns with their soldiers, eating out your subsistence, and harassing you

with still more grievous taxation. Already they have abolished the liberty of the press, as the first step toward the introduction of that monarchy which it is their real purpose to proclaim and establish.

Mexicans, we must treat as enemies, and overthrow the tyrants, who, while they have wronged and insulted us, have deprived you of your liberty; but the Mexican people who remain neutral during the contest, shall be protected against their military despots by the republican army of the union.

Z. TAYLOR,
Brevet Major-general U. S. A. Commanding.

The people of the United States intoxicated with victory, now expected a rapid series of splendid exploits from General Taylor. But he had as much caution as bravery. He was without adequate forces or means of transportation, and could not venture to proceed into the heart of the Mexican territory. At this time he had difficulties with the government, owing, as he alleged, to a tardiness in sending supplies and the means of transportation. A few small towns up the Rio Grande were captured, but no further offensive operations were attempted until the 5th of August, when, with six thousand men, chiefly volunteers, General Taylor commenced the march upon the strongly fortified city of Monterey, the capture of which was one of his most splendid achievements.

Monterey is built in the old Spanish style, and surrounded by massive stone walls, which are defended by ditches, bastions, and towers. The houses are of stone, and mostly of one story in height; but the cathedrals and public buildings, like most of those in Mexico, are large and imposing. The Mexicans had taken every precaution for its successful defence, and not only were the walls and parapets lined with cannon, but even the private houses were fortified, and the streets barricaded and planted with artillery in such a manner as to sweep their whole extent. On the hill *Independence*, at some distance from the city, and near the Saltillo road, were a few fortifications, the principal of which was the Bishop's Palace, an immense edifice, including several strong buildings of a pyramidal form, all rigidly fortified, and lined with troops and artillery.

The first offer of resistance displayed by the enemy was on the 18th, when General Taylor, with a detachment of dragoons and Texan Rangers, was fired upon when within one hundred yards of the city, the first ball striking the ground within about ten yards of the spot where he stood. About the same time two hundred and sixty Mexican cavalry appeared on the plain, and, after firing a few volleys, retired into the city.

The appearance of the heights and gorges in the direction of the Saltillo road, induced General Taylor to believe it practicable to turn all the works in that direction, and thus cut off the enemy's line of communication. Accordingly, after establishing his camp at the Walnut Springs, he ordered a close reconnoisance of that ground, which was executed on the evening of the 19th by the engineer officers under the direction of Major Mansfield. A reconnoisance of the eastern approaches was at the same time made by Captain Williams, of the topographical engineers. The examination made by Major Mansfield proved the entire practicability of throwing forward a column to the Saltillo road, and thus turning the position of the enemy. As this was an operation of essential importance, orders were given to Brevet Brigadier-general Worth, commanding the second division, to march with his command on the 20th, in order to turn the hill of the Bishop's Palace, to occupy a position on the Saltillo road, and to carry as many of the enemy's detached works in that quarter as possible. The first regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, under command of Colonel Hays, was associated with the second division in this service. Captain Sanders (engineers) and Lieutenant Meade (topographical engineers) were also ordered to report to General Worth for duty with his column.

At two o'clock, P. M., on the 20th, the second division took up its march. Some officers, who were reconnoitering the town, soon discovered and communicated to General Worth that his movement had been perceived, and that the Mexicans were throwing reinforcements toward the Bishop's Palace and the height which commands it. In order to divert their attention as far as practicable, the first division, under Brigadier-general Twiggs, and field division of volunteers, under Major-general Butler, were displayed in front of the town until dark. Arrangements were made at the same time to place in battery, during the night, at a suitable distance from the enemy's main work, (the citadel,) two twenty-four-pounder howitzers, and a ten-inch mortar, with a view to open a fire on the following day, the time proposed for making a diversion in favour of General Worth's movement. The fourth infantry covered this battery during the night; and General Worth having made a reconnoisance as far as the Saltillo road, bivouacked at a defensive position within range of a battery above the Bishop's Palace.

Early on the morning of the 21st, General Taylor received a note from General Worth, written at nine o'clock the previous evening, and suggesting a strong diversion against the centre and left of the town, to favour the enterprise against the heights in the rear. This

the commander had already intended, and accordingly, the infantry and artillery of the first division, and the field division of volunteers, were ordered under arms, and took the direction of the city, leaving one company of each regiment as a camp guard. The second dragoons, under Lieutenant-colonel May, and Colonel Wool's regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, under the immediate direction of General Henderson, were directed to the right to support General Worth if necessary, and to make an impression, if practicable, upon the upper quarter of the city. Upon approaching the mortar battery, the first and third regiments of infantry and battalion of Baltimore and Washington volunteers, with Captain Bragg's field battery —the whole under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Garland— were directed toward the lower part of the town, with orders to make a strong demonstration, and carry one of the enemy's advanced works, if it could be done without too heavy a loss. Major Mansfield (engineers,) Captain Williams, and Lieutenant Pope, (topographical engineers,) accompanied this column, the major being charged with its direction and the designation of the points of attack.

At daylight of the 21st, the column of General Worth was again put in motion, and was so arranged as to present ready order of battle at any point on which they might be assailed. While turning the point of a ridge which protruded toward the enemy's guns, they were fired upon by a howitzer and twelve-pounder, and soon after while passing round an angle of the mountain at a hacienda called San Jeronima, they encountered a strong force of cavalry and infantry. Captain Gillespie ordered his men to halt and place themselves in ambush. This movement was not perceived by the enemy, who bore on full speed, until received by McCulloch's company, together with the artillery of Captains Smith and Scott, aided by Lieutenant Longstreet's company of the eighth infantry, and another of the same regiment. Captain Duncan's battery of light artillery was in action in one minute, discharging thick showers of grape, which did great execution. At the end of fifteen minutes the enemy scattered and fled, leaving about one hundred on the field, of whom thirty were killed. The Americans rapidly pursued, and obtained possession of the gorge, where all the *debouches* from Monterey unite, so that the force just defeated, as also reinforcements and supplies, were excluded from entering the city.

The light batteries were now driven upon the slope of the ridge, and the howitzers opened upon the heights of Palace Hill. Soon after the enemy replied from a nine-pounder, situated on the elevation immediately over the right of the column and directed at Dun-

can's batteries. This had no other effect than to cause the removal of the colonel's guns to a less exposed position about half a mile farther on the Saltillo road. Here he was joined by General Worth, who had ordered the foot regiments to form along the fence, near the point of the ridge. At half past ten, the column moved toward the general's position, amid a continual fire from the enemy, by which Captain McKavett, of the eighth infantry, was shot through the heart, with a nine-pound ball, and a private of the fifth infantry mortally wounded in the thigh.

In consequence of this severe annoyance, Worth determined to make himself master of the heights. Besides the impracticability of effective operations against the city until this was accomplished, their occupation was indispensable to the restoration of the line of communication with head-quarters, which had been necessarily abandoned, in order to secure the gorges of the Saltillo road. At noon, therefore, a force was despatched under Captain C. F. Smith, with orders to storm the batteries on the crest of the nearest hill, called by the Mexicans, Federacion, and after taking that to carry the fort, called Soldado, on the ridge of the same height, retired about six hundred yards. This command consisted of four companies of the artillery battalion, and Green's, McGowan's, R. A. Gillespie's, Chandler's, Ballone's, and McCulloch's companies of Texan rifleman, acting in concert under Major Chevalier—in all about three hundred men.

The assailants advanced with ardour, but as the distance to be climbed after reaching the foot of the hill was full quarter of a mile, over jagged and almost perpendicular rocks, and sandy ledges, it was impossible to approach so rapidly as to surprise the enemy. While they were approaching the base of the mountain, the guns of both batteries opened a plunging fire, and numerous light troops were observed descending and arranging themselves at favourable positions on the slopes. Perceiving this, General Worth ordered Captain Miles with the seventh infantry to support the first party. By marching directly to the foot of the ridge, they arrived first, and the captain despatched Lieutenant Gantt, with a detachment of men upon the hill-side, to divert the attention of the enemy from Captain Smith's party, which could not be seen. The seventh infantry had already sustained a heavy fire of grape and round shot, while fording the San Juan; and now Lieutenant Gantt's party were greeted with another shower, which tore up the shrubs and loose stones in every direction. None were injured, but their young officer narrowly escaped a shot, which struck the ground so near to him as to throw

fragments of rock and gravel in his face. Notwithstanding this fire, and a continual discharge of musketry, the detachment continued to advance, driving the Mexicans back, until they were recalled.

Captain Smith now arrived, and both parties moved up the hill, the rangers in advance, and the attack commenced. The firing soon became general, and after a little while the Mexicans yielded, retiring slowly up the hill, steadily followed by the Americans. Heavy reinforcements now appeared on the summit, and the cardinal importance of the operation induced General Worth to detach to their support the fifth infantry under Major Scott, and Blanchard's companies of volunteers, accompanied by Brigadier-general Smith, who was intrusted with the superintendence of the whole assault. On reaching the advance parties, General Smith discovered that by directing a portion of the force to the right, and moving it obliquely up the hill, he could obtain such advantage from the ground as to carry the Soldada simultaneously with the Federacion. He accordingly pointed it out to the fifth and seventh regiments, with Blanchard's company, and accompanied them in that direction. Both attacks were eminently successful. Amid a heavy fire of musketry, the troops advanced with loud cheers, the different companies rushing simultaneously into the first fort, while the Mexicans, numbering nearly one thousand, escaped on the opposite side. The Soldada was carried so soon afterward, that many of those who participated in the first affair, took part also in the second. The American colours were immediately hoisted, and the guns of both places turned upon the Bishop's Palace.

While these operations were conducted on the west of the city, General Taylor with the main army, was busily engaged on the east. Soon after detaching May and Henderson, the mortar served by Captain Ramsay of the ordnance, with the howitzer battery under Captain Webster, had opened its fire upon the citadel, from whence it was deliberately answered. General Butler's division now took up a position in rear of this battery, and soon the discharges of artillery, mingled with a rapid firing of small arms, showed that Lieutenant Garland's command had become warmly engaged. It being necessary to support this attack, General Taylor ordered the fourth infantry and three regiments of Butler's division, to march in the direction of the advanced work in the lower extremity of the town, leaving the first Kentucky regiment to cover the mortar and howitzer battery. By some mistake, two companies of the fourth infantry did not receive this order, and consequently were not able to join their companions until some time afterward.

While these companies were moving, Lieutenant-colonel Garland's command had approached the town in a direction to the right of the advanced work, at the north-eastern angle of the city, and the engineer officer, covered by skirmishers, had succeeded in entering the suburbs and gaining cover. The remainder of the command now advanced and entered the town, under a heavy fire of artillery from the citadel and works on the left, aided by the musketry of the houses and small works in front. A movement to the right was attempted, with a view to gain the rear of the advanced work; but the troops were so much exposed to a fire which they could not effectually return, and had already sustained such severe loss, particularly in officers, that it was deemed best to withdraw them to a more secure position. Captain Backus, however, of the first infantry, with portions of his own and other companies, had gained the roof of a tannery which looked directly into the gorge of the redoubt, upon which and the strong building in its rear, he poured a most destructive fire. By coinciding in point of time with the advance of a body of volunteers upon that work, this fire contributed essentially to its fall.

Meanwhile the three volunteer regiments under General Butler, had been advancing to an assault. The leading brigade under Brigadier-general Quitman, preceded by three companies of the fourth infantry, continued its advance upon the redoubt, while Butler, with the first Ohio regiment, entered the town on the right. The latter companies had advanced within short range of the work, when a sudden discharge, from the enemy's guns, struck down nearly one-third of the officers and men, and rendered it necessary to fall back upon the two advancing columns. Unappalled by the catastrophe of their comrades, as well as by their own severe loss, Quitman's brigade continued to advance, and carried the work together with the strong building in its rear. Three officers, twenty-seven privates, five pieces of artillery, and a supply of ammunition, was the reward of the conquerors.

Butler, in the mean time, had entered the town with the first Ohio regiment; but he here received an order from General Taylor to return, in consequence of not being able to accomplish any thing in front; but, upon the reception of intelligence that the Mexican redoubt had surrendered, this order was almost immediately countermanded. Butler then entered the town at a point farther to the left, and marched in the direction of the enemy's second battery; but while making an examination in order to ascertain the possibility of carrying this work, he was wounded, and soon after left the field.

On account of this accident, together with the known force of the enemy, it was thought advisable to withdraw the troops.

Portions of the various regiments engaged, were now under cover of the captured battery and some buildings on its front and right. The field-battery of Captains Bragg and Ridgely was also partially covered by the battery. The enemy now poured an incessant fire from their second battery, and the works on its right, and from the citadel, at every approach of the Americans. General Taylor was now joined by General Twiggs, who, though quite unwell, continued in active duty, and was instrumental in causing the artillery captured from the enemy, to be placed in battery, and served by Captain Ridgely, until the arrival of Captain Webster's howitzer battery, which took its place. Meanwhile a company collected from the Baltimore battalion, and the first, third, and fourth regiments were ordered to enter the town, penetrate to the right, and carry the second battery if possible. This command, under Lieutenant-colonel Garland, advanced beyond a bridge called Purisima, and sustained themselves for some time in that advanced position. But as they were unable to gain the rear of the battery, or to make a permanent impression where they were, they were withdrawn with a section of Captain Ridgely's battery which had joined them to the first battery.

During the progress of this cannonade a party of Mexican cavalry were observed in the direction of the citadel, moving toward the American lines. Captain Bragg immediately galloped with his battery, to a suitable position, from which a few discharges effectually dispersed them. Captain Millar, of the first infantry, was despatched with a mixed command, to support the battery on this service. The enemy's lancers had previously charged upon the Ohio and a part of the Mississippi regiments near some fields at a distance from the edge of the town, but had been repulsed with considerable loss; and some cavalry on the opposite side of the river, was also dispersed by Captain Ridgely's battery and returned to the city.

At the approach of evening, all the troops that had been engaged were ordered back to the camp, except Captain Ridgely's battery and the regular infantry of the first division, who, during the night, were detailed under Lieutenant-colonel Garland, as a guard for the works. One battalion of the first Kentucky regiment was ordered to reinforce this command. Intrenching tools were procured, and during the night additional strength was given to the works and protection to the men, by parties under the direction of Lieutenant Scarritt of the engineers.

Thus the first day's assault had given to the Americans two im-

portant redoubts without the city, and a well-fortified work within. But these advantages were purchased at the expense of some of their most valuable officers; and their total loss, as stated by General Taylor in his official despatch, was not less than three hundred and ninety-four in killed and wounded.

The troops under General Worth lay on their arms all night, and at three o'clock next morning were aroused for an attack upon the Bishop's Palace. The storming party consisted of two companies of the fourth artillery battalion and one of the third; three companies of the eighth infantry, including two hundred Texan riflemen, under Colonel Hays and Lieutenant-colonel Walker: the whole was superintended by Lieutenant-colonel Childs, and conducted to the points of ascent by Captain Sanders and Lieutenant Meade. Being favoured by the weather, they had reached, by the dawn of day, within about one hundred yards of the crest, at which position a body of the enemy had been stationed on the previous evening, in order to gall the assailants from the clefts of the rocks. Their retreating fire was not returned, until Colonel Childs' and Hays' commands had reached to within a few yards of the summit, when a well-directed volley, followed by the bayonet of the regulars, and the rush of the Texans, placed the Americans in possession of the work. The cannon having been previously withdrawn, no impression could be made upon the massive walls of the Palace, or its outworks, without artillery. Lieutenant Rowland of Duncan's battery was now ordered from the main road with a twelve-pound howitzer, and in two hours mounted his guns, although he had been obliged to climb a steep and rugged acclivity more than seven hundred feet high, his soldiers carrying their pieces by main strength. Covered by the epaulment of the captured battery, this howitzer now opened upon the Palace and its outwork, at the distance of four hundred yards, and soon produced a visible effect. To reinforce the position thus acquired, the fifth infantry and Major Scott and Blanchard's volunteers had passed from the first heights, and reached the second in time to participate in the operations against the Palace.

The remainder of these operations, together with its capture, we give in General Worth's own language, as contained in his official report to General Taylor:—

"After many affairs of light troops and several feints, a heavy sortie was made, sustained by a strong corps of cavalry, with desperate resolution, to repossess the heights. Such a move had been anticipated and prepared for. Lieutenant-colonel Childs had advanced under cover, two companies of light troops, under command of Cap-

tain Vinton, acting major, and judiciously drawn up, the main body of his command flanked on the right by Hays, and on the left by Walker's Texans. The enemy advanced boldly, was repulsed by one general discharge from all arms, fled in confusion, closely pressed by Childs and Hays, preceded by the light troops under Vinton; and while they fled past our troops, entered the palace and fort. In a few moments the unpretending flag of our Union had replaced the gaudy standard of Mexico. The captured guns—one six-inch howitzer, one twelve and two nine-pounder brass guns, together with Duncan's and McCall's field-batteries, which came up at a gallop, were in full and effective play upon the retiring and confused masses that filled the street (of which we had the prolongation) leading to the nearest plaza, *La Capella*, also crowded with troops. At this moment the enemy's loss was heavy. The investment was now complete except the forces necessary to hold the positions on Independencia and serve the guns, (shifted to points where the shot could be made to reach the great plaza,) the division was now concentrated around the palace, and preparation made to assault the city, on the following day or sooner, should the general-in-chief either so direct, or before communication be had, renew the assault from the opposite quarter. In the mean time attention was directed to every provision our circumstances permitted, to alleviate the condition of our wounded soldiers and officers, and to the decent interment of the dead, not omitting in either respect all that was due to those of the enemy."

In this assault the Americans lost but seven killed and twelve wounded; the loss of the enemy was not precisely ascertained, but is known to have been very heavy.

During the whole of this day there were but few active operations at the lower part of the city. The citadel and other works continued to fire at the American companies exposed to their range, and at the redoubt occupied by their troops. The guard left in it, the preceding night, except Captain Ridgely's company, were relieved at midday by General Quitman's brigade. Captain Bragg's battery was thrown under cover in front of the town, to repel any demonstration of cavalry in that quarter.

During the night the enemy evacuated nearly all their defences in the lower part of the city. Early in the morning this was reported by General Quitman, who, having already meditated an assault upon those works, now received instructions, leaving it discretionary with him to enter the city, but requested him, in case of doing so, to proceed very carefully, covering his men by the houses and walls, and advancing only so far as he might deem safe or prudent. Accord-

ingly a portion of the brigade entered the town, and forced their way successfully to the principal plaza. General Taylor then ordered the remainder of the troops, under Brigadier-general Twiggs, to act as a reserve, and soon after repaired to the abandoned works. The second regiment of Texas mounted volunteers was also ordered up, who entered the city, dismounted, and, under the immediate orders of General Henderson, co-operated with Quitman's brigade. They were assisted by Captain Bragg's battery, supported by the third infantry, who succeeded in battering down a portion of the cathedral. The troops advanced from house to house, and from square to square, until they reached a street but one square in rear of the principal plaza, in and near which the enemy's force was mainly concentrated. Though vigorous, the advance was conducted with due caution, so that notwithstanding the continual fire of the enemy, who suffered heavily, the assailants lost but few. In the mean time Captain Ridgely had served against the city a piece captured in the first battery, until the advance of the soldiers rendered it imprudent to fire in the direction of the cathedral.

Thus the Mexicans had retired from the lower portion of the city, in order to concentrate their forces for a final effort behind their barricades; and it was apparent that the army could now operate successfully against them. As Quitman's brigade had been on duty all the previous night, and were much exhausted, General Taylor determined to withdraw them to the evacuated works, and concert with General Worth a combined attack upon the town. Accordingly the troops were relieved after nightfall by the brigade of General Hamer, and deliberately, and in good order, resumed their original position.

On returning to camp, General Taylor received intelligence by an officer, that General Worth, induced by the firing in the lower part of the city, was about making an attack at the upper extremity, which had been evacuated by the enemy to a considerable distance. Although this would have afforded a fine opportunity for co-operation, yet the commander did not think it expedient to change his orders, and accordingly retired to camp.

The 23d had been a season of activity to the division under General Worth. About ten o'clock, A. M., a firing was heard in the opposite quarter, whose heaviness and continuance, as well as other circumstances, induced a belief that the commander-in-chief was conducting a main attack,and that his orders for co-operation, having to travel a circuit of six miles, had either been miscarried or intercepted by some of the numerous cavalry parties of the enemy.

Under these convictions the troops were instantly ordered to commence an operation, which, if not otherwise directed, General Worth had designed to execute under favour of the night. Two columns of attack were organized, to move along the two principal streets which run in the direction of the great plaza. The advance was composed of light troops slightly extended, whose duties were arduous and dangerous. They were ordered to mask the men whenever practicable, avoiding the points swept by the enemy's artillery, and pressing on to the first plaza, (capella,) obtain the ends of the streets beyond them, enter the buildings, and by means of picks and bars break through the longitudinal section of the walls, work from house to house, and ascending the roofs, to place themselves on the same, breast height with the enemy. Light artillery by sections and pieces, under Duncan, Rowland, McCall, Martin, Hays, Irons, Clarke, and Curd, followed at suitable intervals, covered by reserves to guard the pieces, together with the whole operation, against the probable enterprises of cavalry upon our left. This was effectually done by seizing and commanding the head of every cross street.

At numerous well-chosen points, the enemy had barricaded the streets by heavy masonry walls, each containing embrasures for one or more guns, and the whole well supported by cross batteries. These arrangements made it necessary for the Americans to act with much precaution, and gave a complicated character to their operations; but notwithstanding the difficulties in their way, they worked steadily, simultaneously, and successfully.

Meanwhile the firing on the opposite side of the city had ceased, and the enemy were enabled to transfer their men and guns from that position, and employ them against General Worth. The troops, however, still continued to advance, and at dark reached within one block of the principal plaza, having worked through walls and squares, left a covered way in their rear, and carried a large building which towered over the principal defences, and on the roof of which two howitzers and a six-pounder were placed during the night and ensuing morning.

Early on the morning of the 24th, Colonel Morena arrived at the camp of General Taylor, bearing the following communication from General Ampudia:—

[TRANSLATION.]

D. Pedro Ampudia, General-in-chief, to Major-general Taylor.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY AT MONTEREY,
Sept. 23d, 1846, 9 *o'clock, P. M.*

Senor General—Having made the defence of which I believe this

city is susceptible, I have fulfilled my duty, and have satisfied the military honour, which, in a certain manner, is common to all armies of the civilized world.

To prosecute the defence, therefore, would only result in distress to the population, who have already suffered enough from the misfortunes consequent on war; and taking it for granted that the American Government has manifested a disposition to negotiate, I propose to you to evacuate the city and its fort, taking with me the *personelle* and *materielle* which have remained, and under the assurance that no harm shall ensue to the inhabitants who have taken a part in the defence.

Be pleased to accept the assurance of my distinguished consideration.

PEDRO DE AMPUDIA.

To SENOR DON Z. TAYLOR,
Commander-in-chief of the American Army.

General Taylor replied as follows:—

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp before Monterey, Sept. 24, 1846, 7 *o'clock, A.M.*

Sir—Your communication bearing date at nine o'clock P. M. on the 23d instant, has just been received by the hands of Colonel Morena.

In answer to your proposition to evacuate the city and fort, with all the personel and materiel of war, I have to state that my duty compels me to decline acceding to it. A complete surrender of the town and garrison, the latter as prisoners of war, is now demanded. But such surrender will be upon terms—and the gallant defence of the place, creditable alike to the Mexican troops and nation, will prompt me to make those terms as liberal as possible. The garrison will be allowed at your option, after laying down its arms, to retire to the interior, on condition of not serving again during the war, or until regularly exchanged. I need hardly say that the rights of non-combatants will be respected.

An answer to this communication is required by 12 o'clock. If you assent to an accommodation, an officer will be despatched at once, under instructions to arrange the conditions.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,
Maj. Gen. U. S. A. Commanding.

SENOR D. PEDRO DE AMPUDIA,
General-in-chief, Monterey

A cessation of hostilities now took place, and in the mean while, at the request of General Ampudia, the two commanders had a personal interview.

This interview is thus humorously described by an eye-witness:—

"Ampudia was all courtesy and fine words, big speeches, great volubility, with an abundance of gesticulations, shrugs, nods, alternate smiles and frowns, and that whole catalogue of silent language with which persons of French origin (as is Ampudia) are wont to help the expression of their ideas.

"General Taylor, on the other hand, was as dry as a chip, as plain as a pipe-stem, and as short as pie-crust. Dressed in his best coat, (which by-the-by looks as if it had served some half a dozen campaigns,) with his glazed oil-cloth cap, strapless pants, and old-fashioned white vest, he looked more like an old farmer lately elected militia colonel, who had put on his every-day suit, with the slightest imaginable sign of military foppery, to distinguish him from a crowd of mere civilians. In his reply to Ampudia's long harangues, he used such direct, blunt, and emphatic language, that the valorous Mexican was thrown all aback and 'had nothing to say.' "

"Ampudia opened the interview by stating that his forces were too large to be conquered by General Taylor's army—that he had an abundance of ammunition, seven thousand infantry and three thousand cavalry, with forty cannon, and the best artillerists in the world—that his loss was very small, and he felt confident he could defend the city against a much stronger force than that under General Taylor's command; but that from motives of humanity—to spare the effusion of blood—to save the lives of helpless women and children, he was willing so far to compromise the glory of the great Mexican nation, as to surrender the city, provided he was allowed to retire with his whole force, and carry the public property with him, and all the arms and munitions of war. When he had finished his magnificent oration, which, in the style of his celebrated proclamation, was garnished with numerous allusions to the stupendous power and unfading glory and renown of magnanimous Mexico, old Zachary quietly stuck his hands deep into his pockets, cocked his head a little on one side, and gently raising his grizzly eyebrows, that the bold little black eye lurking beneath might have full play upon the grandiloquent Mexican, replied in these few, but expressive words:—

" 'General Ampudia, we come here to take Monterey, and we are going to do it on such terms as please us. I wish you good morning.' And the old general hobbled off on his two short little legs, leaving the Mexican general and staff in the profoundest bewilderment."

The following were the terms upon which Monterey capitulated to the gallant besiegers:—

Terms of capitulation of the city of Monterey, the capital of Nuevo Leon, agreed upon by the undersigned commissioners, to wit: General Worth, of the United States army, General Henderson, of the Texan volunteers, and Colonel Davis, of the Mississippi riflemen, on the part of Major-general Taylor, commander-in-chief of the United States forces; and General Raquena and General Ortega, of the army of Mexico, and Senor Manuel M. Llano, governor of Nuevo Leon, on the part of Senor General Don Pedro de Ampudia, commanding-in-chief the army of the North of Mexico.

Art. 1. As the legitimate result of the operations before this place, and the present position of the contending armies, it is agreed that the city, the fortifications, cannon, the munitions of war, and all other public property, with the undermentioned exceptions, be surrendered to the commanding general of the United States forces now at Monterey.

Art. 2. That the Mexican forces be allowed to retain the following arms, to wit: the commissioned officers their side arms, the infantry their arms and accoutrements, the cavalry their arms and accoutrements, the artillery one field-battery, not to exceed six pieces, with twenty-one rounds of ammunition.

Art. 3. That the Mexican armed forces retire within seven days from this date, beyond the line formed by the pass of the Rinconada, the city of Linares, and San Fernando de Presas.

Art. 4. That the citadel of Monterey be evacuated by the Mexican, and occupied by the American forces, to-morrow morning, at ten o'clock.

Art. 5. To avoid collisions, and for mutual convenience, that the troops of the United States will not occupy the city until the Mexican forces have withdrawn, except for hospital and storage purposes.

Art. 6. That the forces of the United States will not advance beyond the line specified in the 2d [3d] article before the expiration of eight weeks, or until the orders or instructions of the respective governments can be received.

Art. 7. That the public property to be delivered shall be turned over and received by officers appointed by the commanding generals of the two armies.

Art. 8. That all doubts as to the meaning of any of the preceding articles shall be solved by an equitable construction, and on principles of liberality to the retiring army.

Art. 9. That the Mexican flag, when struck at the citadel, may be saluted by its own battery.

Done at Monterey, Sept. 24, 1846.

W. J. Worth,
Brigadier-general U. S. A.
J. Pinkney Henderson,
Maj. Gen. Comdg. the Texan Vol.
Jefferson Davis,
Col. Mississippi Riflemen.
Manuel M. Llano,
T. Requena,
Ortega.

Approved: Pedro Ampudia,
Z. Taylor,
Maj. Gen. U. S. A. Comdg.

These terms were not entirely satisfactory to the government at Washington. In justification of them, General Taylor soon afterward wrote as follows:—

"It will be seen that the terms granted the Mexican garrison are less rigorous than those first imposed. The gallant defence of the town, and the fact of a recent change of government in Mexico, believed to be favourable to the interests of peace, induced me to concur with the commission in these terms, which will I trust, receive the approval of the government. The latter consideration also prompted the convention for a temporary cessation of hostilities. Though scarcely warranted by my instructions, yet the change of affairs since those instructions were issued, seemed to warrant this course. I beg to be advised as early as practicable whether I have met the views of the government in these particulars."

Making his head-quarters at Monterey, General Taylor proceeded to occupy Saltillo and Parras, while the Mexicans fell back upon San Luis Potosi. Santa Anna was recalled to Mexico, and placed at the head of the government and army. Before December he had twenty thousand men under his command well organized; and with this force, he determined to crush Taylor at a blow, and redeem the conquered provinces. While these preparations were going on, the Government of the United States, for the purpose of an attack on Vera Cruz, withdrew from General Taylor the most effective portion of his forces, leaving him with an extended line of territory to defend, a formidable foe in front, and with only a small force, principally untried volunteers, to encounter the enemy.

On parting with the companions of his victories, General Taylor delivered the following touching and manly address:—

"It is with deep sensibility that the commanding general finds himself separated from the troops he so long commanded. To those corps, regular and volunteer, who have shared with him the active services of the field, he feels the attachment due to such associations, while to those who are making their first campaign, he must express his regret that he cannot participate with them in its eventful scenes. To all, both officers and men, he extends his heartfelt wishes for their continued success and happiness, confident that their achievements on another theatre will redound to the credit of their country and its arms."

General Taylor now fell back to Monterey; but, rejecting the counsel of General Scott to remain on the defensive in that town, when he learned of the advance of General Santa Anna, with twenty-two thousand men from San Luis de Potosi, he moved forward to a position called Agua Nueva, eighteen miles below Saltillo. He reached that place on the 20th of February, 1847, with five thousand four hundred men. Here he received intelligence that Santa Anna was then but thirty miles distant, and rapidly advancing. He, therefore, left Agua Nueva, and took up a strong position at Buena Vista, seven miles below Saltillo.

The excellence of this station, as a battle-ground, had been remarked by General Taylor, when passing it on his previous march, and the wisdom evinced in its choice has been a theme of universal admiration. The face of the country is every way adapted to interrupt the progress of an enemy's cavalry, and to diminish the advantages of a superiority in numbers. The mountains rise on either side of an irregular and broken valley, about three miles in width, dotted over with hills and ridges, and scarred with broad and winding ravines. The main road lies along the course of an "arroyo," the bed of which is so deep as to form an almost impassable barrier, while the other side is bounded by precipitous elevations, stretching perpendicularly toward the mountains, and separated by broad gullies until they mingle with one at the principal base. Of course such a road is almost impracticable for artillery, and, in fine, for any satisfactory movements of a large army.

On the morning of the 22d, General Taylor was advised that the enemy were in sight, advancing. They had left Encarnacion at 11 o'clock, on the day previous, and had driven in a mounted force left at Agua Nueva, to cover the removal of public stores. The American order of battle had been previously arranged. Captain Washington's battery (fourth artillery) was posted to command the road, while the first and third Illinois regiments, under Colonels Hardin

and Bissell, each eight companies, and the second Kentucky regiment, under Colonel McKee, occupied the crests of the ridges on the left and in the rear. The Arkansas and Kentucky regiments of cavalry, commanded by Colonels Yell and H. Marshall, occupied the extreme left, near the base of the mountain, while the Indiana brigade, under Brigadier-general Lane, the Mississippi riflemen, under Colonel Davis, the squadrons of the first and second dragoons, under Captain Steen and Lieutenant-colonel May, and the light batteries of Captains Sherman and Bragg, (third artillery,) were held in reserve.

At 11 o'clock, Surgeon-general Lindenbury, of the Mexican army, arrived at the head-quarters of the Americans, bearing a white flag and a communication from Santa Anna. The latter was a summons to surrender, which we annex, together with the reply.

[TRANSLATION.]

Summons of General Santa Anna to General Taylor.

You are surrounded by twenty thousand men, and cannot, in any human probability, avoid suffering a rout and being cut to pieces by our troops; but as you deserve consideration and particular esteem, I wish to save you from a catastrophe, and for that purpose give you this notice, in order that you may surrender at discretion, under the assurance that you will be treated with the consideration belonging to the Mexican character, to which end you will be granted an hour's time, to make up your mind, to commence from the moment when my flag of truce arrives in your camp.

With this view I assure you of my particular consideration.

God and liberty! Camp at Encantada, February 22d, 1847.

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA.

To General Z. TAYLOR, Commanding forces of the U. S.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Near Buena Vista, February 22d, 1847.

Sir—In reply to your note of this date, summoning me to surrender my forces at discretion, I beg leave to say that I decline acceding to your request.

With high respect I am, sir, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,
Major-general U. S. A. Commanding.

SENOR GEN. D. ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA,
Commander-in-chief, La Encantada.

Before dark a number of the enemy's infantry had ascended the mountains on the left, from which, at the distance of three hundred

yards, they opened a heavy fire upon Colonel Marshall's regiment. This was returned by two of his companies which were dismounted for that purpose, and the skirmishing continued until after dark. In this slight affray three of the Americans were slightly wounded. While it was going on, three pieces of Captain Washington's battery had been detached to the left, and were supported by the second Indiana regiment. A shell was occasionally thrown by the enemy into this part of the line, but without producing any effect. It was now evident that no serious attack would be made before morning, and accordingly General Taylor returned to Saltillo with the Mississippi cavalry and regiment of dragoons. In order, however, to be prepared for an attack at any moment, the troops were ordered to bivouac without fires, and sleep upon their arms.

A body of cavalry, numbering at least fifteen hundred, had been observed all day hovering in the rear of Saltillo, having entered the valley through a narrow pass east of the city. The intention of this cavalry was unknown, but it had probably been thrown behind the American army to break up and harass its expected retreat, and if practicable, to make an attack upon the town. Ample measures had been taken to thwart the enemy should they attempt the latter project. The city was occupied by three excellent companies of Illinois volunteers, under Major Warren, of the first regiment, and a field-work which commanded most of the approaches was garrisoned by Captain Webster's company, first artillery, and armed with two twenty-four pound howitzers, while the train and head-quarters camp was guarded by two companies of Mississippi riflemen under Captain Rodgers, and a field-piece commanded by Captain Shover, third artillery. General Taylor himself passed the night in the city, and did not reach the field of battle until the following morning, when the engagement had been for some time commenced.

The morning of the 23d was beautiful, and for a little while it seemed as though nature had divested her sons of the disposition or capability of inflicting injury. The wild ravines of the rocks hung with dense forests, and frowning for the return of day, afforded relief to the little hills and clumps of chapparal which were scattered in every direction; while a confused prospect of deep gorges, tangled foliage, irregular valleys, and in the distance the quiet, solemn mountains, all blended into one indistinct picture by the approaching twilight, lent to the whole an appearance of romance. But as the sun approached the horizon, the morning rendered visible the extended lines and white tents of two opposing armies, and soon the blast of the war trumpet, the beating of drums, and the trembling

of the ground beneath the tread of armed thousands, announced that the antagonists were preparing for other scenes than an admiration of the beauties of nature. Mexico and her hostile sister were about to meet as they never had before. There had been the opening of the drama at Palo Alto and La Palma, and the battling of fierce experience at Monterey; but they were but the preparations for the grand display which, under the favourite generals of both nations, was now to be exhibited on the plains of Buena Vista.

During the evening and night of the 22d, detachments of the enemy had been observed stealing toward the station where had been the firing of the preceding day. These different parties had united, and taken up a position on the mountain side, with the intention of outflanking the American left wing. They were mostly light troops, and altogether destitute of artillery. While they were manœuvring, the Americans captured a Mexican soldier, who reported the force of Santa Anna to be six thousand cavalry and fifteen thousand infantry, with fifteen pieces of artillery, including some twenty-four-pounders. This confirmed the statement of that general himself in his summons to surrender, and fully justified the prevalent belief that the coming battle would be obstinate and bloody.

Early on the morning of the 23d, the action was opened by a fire of the Mexicans upon the American extreme left. During the night they had so stationed a twelve-pounder on a point at the base of the mountain, that it could be made to command any position which the Americans might take, and the quick, heavy discharges from this piece showed that they knew the importance of their advantage, and were determined to improve it.

These discharges were received and answered by the riflemen under Colonel Marshall, who had been previously reinforced by three companies under Major Trail, of the second Illinois volunteers. Though engaged with a much superior force, these troops maintained their ground with spirit and effect, returning the fire of the light troops with great coolness.

The Mexican commander now ordered a general advance of his cavalry supported by infantry on the left, with the design of turning the flank and gaining the rear of their antagonists. The vast body, splendidly uniformed, and making a most imposing appearance, advanced steadily to the execution of that project.

At the same time the Americans were not idle, but watched coolly the approach of the host, with whom they were soon to be engaged in mortal conflict; and Lane even ordered the artillery and second Indiana regiment forward, in order to bring them within effective

range. The artillery of both armies now commenced rapid discharges upon the opposing ranks, while at the same moment the Mexican infantry poured a wide sheet of fire upon the whole line from the left, to McKee's regiment. This was answered by the Kentucky riflemen under McKee, Clay, and Fry, and the uninterrupted roar of fire-arms and shouts of the combatants announced that the action on the left had become general. The American artillery was now within musket range of the Mexican infantry, into which it poured a most destructive fire, but without being able to check their approach. During the whole attack the second Illinois regiment was exposed to the hottest of the fire, which it sustained with admirable firmness; and the main body of Colonel Hardin's regiment having moved to the right of the Kentuckians, the representatives of each State seemed to vie with each other in doing the best service to their country.

Meanwhile the enemy's cavalry had been stealthily pursuing their way along the mountain, and though the artillery had wrought great havoc in their masses, yet the leading columns passed the extreme points of danger, and were concentrating their forces for a charge upon the American rear. At this moment, when the utmost effort of every available force seemed essential to the least chance of a successful resistance, the Indiana regiment, who were stationed to support the artillery, turned upon its proper front, and commenced a disorderly retreat. Colonel Bowles immediately dashed forward to arrest their progress; but all his efforts were vain, and they continued their flight until beyond range of battle. Several officers of General Taylor's staff immediately galloped off to rally them if possible. Major Dix, of the pay department, (formerly seventh infantry,) was the first to reach the deserters; and seizing the regimental colours, displayed them to the men with an appeal to their honour as soldiers; he was answered by loud cheers, and a portion of the regiment immediately rallied around him, and was reformed by the officers. The major then led them toward the enemy, bearing the standard until one of the men volunteered to carry it. The party then returned to the field, and though not in time to repair the disaster which their flight had occasioned, yet they afterward retrieved in some degree their military honour.

This retreat filled the Mexicans with exultation, and as their shouts of anticipated triumph rose above the roar of the artillery, they advanced along the base of the mountain, discharging not only small arms and artillery in front, but cross-fires of grape and cannister from the battery on the left. Against so tremendous a charge, Captain O'Brien found it impossible to retain his position without sup-

port, but was not able to withdraw more than two of his pieces, all the horses and cannoneers of the third one being killed or disabled. At the same time Colonel Bissell's regiment, which had been joined by a section of Captain Sherman's battery, having become completely outflanked, and being entirely unsupported, was compelled to fall back. The enemy were now certain of victory, and on every side continued to march dense masses of infantry and cavalry toward a station in rear of the Americans.

At this moment General Taylor arrived from Saltillo.

The Mississippi regiment had been directed to the left, before reaching the position, and immediately came into action with the Mexican infantry which had turned the American flank. Previously to this the second Kentucky regiment, and a section of artillery under Captain Bragg, had been ordered from the right to reinforce the left, and arrived in a most seasonable moment. That regiment and a portion of the first Illinois under Colonel Hardin, came rapidly into action, drove back the enemy, and recovered a portion of the lost ground. The batteries of Sherman and Bragg did much execution, not only in front, but particularly upon the masses which had gained the rear. Washington's battery on the right had also opened its fire, and the artillery now made the columns of the enemy to roll to and fro like ships upon the ocean. The action was at this time terrible. The battle raged along the entire line of both armies, causing the volleys of artillery to reverberate through the mountains like the thunder of their own storms. Twenty-five thousand men were then engaged in a dark and fearful struggle for death or victory.

The Mexican cavalry still pressed on the left, and threatened a charge upon the Mississippi riflemen, who, under Colonel Davis, had been ordered to support the Indiana regiment. The Colonel immediately threw his command into the form of a V, with the opening toward the enemy. In this position he firmly awaited the advance of the cavalry, who came dashing on at full speed. The Americans reserved their fire until they could take aim at the enemy's eyes, and then poured forth a volley from both lines, which broke the opposing ranks, overthrowing horse and rider in promiscuous slaughter. This retarded, but did not stop their progress, and in a little while they rallied for a renewed attack.

About this time a portion of the enemy's infantry had become detached from the main body and were suffering such terrible slaughter, that General Taylor thought proper to send Lieutenant Crittenden with a flag of truce to the Mexican commander in order to demand their surrender.

The Mexican officer, pretending not to understand the character of his mission, insisted that he should be blindfolded, according to the rules of war, and thus had the lieutenant carried into the camp of Santa Anna himself. This was a ruse to extricate the Mexican cavalry from their dangerous position, and pending this truce, they were all drawn off by a different road from that by which they had gained this position.

Lieutenant Crittenden was conducted blindfolded to the tent of the Mexican general-in-chief, which he found a long distance from the scene of action, and in a situation which he thought the safest place he had been in during the whole day. As he approached Santa Anna's tent, he was greeted with a most tremendous flourish of trumpets, which might have been heard a mile off, but produced no very great terror in the mind of the Kentuckian. His blind was taken off, and he found himself in the presence of the famous Mexican chief, surrounded by a brilliant staff of bedizened, gilded, and moustached officers. Santa Anna apologized to the lieutenant for the act of his officers in having him blindfolded, saying, that so far from having any desire to conceal his situation, he was desirous of exhibiting to General Taylor the utter folly of resisting so powerful an army as he had under his command. To which the lieutenant replied, that his simple message was to demand his (Santa Anna's) immediate surrender to General Taylor. When this extraordinary demand was translated to the Mexican, he raised his hands and eyebrows in utter astonishment at the temerity and presumption of such a message, and replied, that he would expect General Taylor to surrender in an hour, or he would destroy all his forces. Lieutenant Crittenden's reply, which we have already given—"*General Taylor never surrenders!*"—terminated the interview, and the battle recommenced, and was continued until night.

In the mean while the third Indiana regiment, under Colonel Lane, supported by a considerable body of horse, was ordered to join Colonel Davis. At the same time Lieutenant Kilburn, with a piece of Captain Bragg's artillery, was directed to support the infantry there engaged. The action now recommenced with redoubled vigour, and every inch of ground was contested with obstinacy. Several charges were made by the enemy, both with cavalry and infantry, but they were resolutely met, and the Mexicans repulsed with heavy loss. Meanwhile all the regular cavalry and Captain Pike's squadron of Arkansas horse had been placed under the orders of Brevet Lieutenant-colonel May, with directions to hold in check the enemy's column, which was still advancing to the rear along the base of the

mountain; and this he effected in conjunction with the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry, under Colonels Marshall and Yell.

Meanwhile the left, which was still strongly threatened by a superior force, was further strengthened by a detachment of Captain Bragg's, and a portion of Captain Sherman's batteries. The concentration of artillery fire upon the masses of the enemy at the base of the mountain, and the determined resistance offered by the two regiments opposed to them, had created confusion in their ranks, and some of the corps attempted to effect a retreat upon their main line of battle. In order to prevent this, the squadron of the first dragoons under Lieutenant Rucker was ordered up the deep ravine which they were endeavouring to cross, with orders to charge and disperse them. The lieutenant proceeded to the point indicated; but being exposed to a heavy fire from a battery established to cover the retreat of those corps, he could not accomplish his object.

While this was going on, the American baggage train was observed winding along the Saltillo road. At sight of it the lancers formed, evidently with the design of making an attack upon a part of the army likely to offer but little resistance; but at this important moment Lieutenant Rucker rushed along, giving them a sweeping fire, which scattered a part of them with the loss of many killed and wounded. Lieutenant-colonel May, with two pieces of Sherman's battery, under Lieutenant Reynolds, was also ordered to defend the hacienda of Buena Vista, where the train and baggage of the army were deposited. In the mean time the scattered forces near the hacienda, composed in part of the commands of Majors Trail and German, had partly organized under Major Monroe, chief of artillery, with the assistance of Major Morrison, volunteer staff, and were posted to defend the position. Before the American cavalry had reached the hacienda, that of the enemy had made an attack. The latter were far more numerous than their antagonists; but their fierce charge was successfully resisted by the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry under Colonels Marshall and Yell. In the conflict the Mexican column was divided, one portion sweeping by the depot, where it received a destructive fire from the force collected there, and then gained a mountain opposite under a fire from Lieutenant Reynolds's section. The second portion gained the base of the mountain on the left. In the charge at Buena Vista, Colonel Yell and Adjutant Vaughan, of the Kentucky cavalry, were mortally wounded. They were officers of much promise.

May's dragoons, with a squadron of Arkansas cavalry under Captain Pike, supported by a piece of artillery under Reynolds, now

encountered the lancers, who had once more rallied; but this shock threw their whole rank into confusion, and drove them back toward the mountain with immense loss.

The chances of victory seemed now with the Americans, and the position of that portion of the Mexican army which had gained the rear, was so critical as to render it doubtful, whether it would be able to rejoin the main body. At this moment a Mexican officer reached General Taylor, bearing a white flag, and stated in a most courteous manner that "he had been sent by his excellency General Santa Anna, to his excellency General Taylor, to inquire in the most respectful manner, what he was waiting for?" Although this was believed to be merely a ruse, for the purpose of gaining time, the American commander thought proper to notice it. Accordingly Brigadier-general Wool was despatched to the Mexican commander, and orders issued to the army to cease firing. When Wool arrived at the enemy's line they refused to cease their fire, and he was obliged to return without an interview. During the cessation on the part of the Americans, the enemy continued to retreat along the base of the mountain, and finally effected a junction with the remainder of the army. This had evidently been the object of the Mexican general in asking a truce—a manœuvre as artful as it was successful.

During the day, the cavalry of General Minon had ascended the elevated plain above Saltillo, and occupied the road from the city to the field of battle, where they intercepted several American privates. On approaching the town, they were fired upon by Captain Webster from the redoubt occupied by his company, and then moved toward the eastern side of the valley, in the oblique direction of Buena Vista.

At this time Captain Shover, supported by a miscellaneous command of mounted volunteers, fired several shots at the cavalry with great effect. They were driven into the ravines which lead to the lower valley, closely pursued by Captain Shover, who was further supported by one piece of Captain Webster's battery, under Lieutenant Donaldson, who had advanced from the redoubt, aided by Captain Wheeler's company of Illinois volunteers. The enemy made one or two efforts to charge the artillery, but were finally driven back in a confused mass, and did not reappear upon the plain.

After the junction of the cavalry of Santa Anna with his main army, he determined to concentrate his forces for a general charge upon the American line. They came down in full strength, directing their whole efforts to the point where was the little company of artillery. Captain O'Brien, with two pieces, met this heavy charge

with the most admirable firmness; but his infantry support being entirely routed, he was at length obliged to leave his guns on the field and retire. Captain Bragg, who had just arrived from the left, was immediately ordered into battery; and without any infantry to support him, and at the imminent risk of losing his guns, that brave officer rushed into action when the Mexican line was but a few yards from the muzzle of his guns. The moment was critical. Every eye was bent toward him, as the fierce lancers, rising in their stirrups, rushed at his little band. Suddenly that artillery which had so often scattered death amid their ranks, opened its tremendous fire. Then there was a pause in their progress, and scores of the dead and wounded sunk with one thrilling groan beneath the hoofs of their companions' chargers. The pause was but for a moment; a command was given to advance, and they obeyed. But another discharge, and the next moment another, mowed them down by hundreds and threw their columns into disorder and defeat. The Mexicans were thoroughly routed; and while their regiments and divisions were flying, nearly all the light troops were ordered forward, and followed them with a deadly fire, mingled with shouts which rose above the noise of battle. In this charge the first Illinois regiment, and McKee's Kentuckians were foremost. Forgetting their deficiency of numbers in the ardour of pursuit, these troops pushed forward to a considerable distance beyond the battle line; when the Mexicans wheeled around with almost magical quickness and attacked them. For a while the carnage was great on both sides; but the Americans being but a handful in comparison with the dense masses that were hurled against them, were obliged to retreat. Thus the day again seemed lost; but in this extremity, an appeal to the faithful weapon, which had never yet failed them, retrieved the victory. While the Americans were driven through the ravines, at the extremities of which a body of Mexican lancers was stationed to cut off their retreat, Brent and Whiting, of Washington's battery, discharged upon the pursuers a torrent of grape-shot, which overthrew vast numbers, and put the survivors to flight. This fire was most fortunate; saving the weary remnant of those brave regiments, which had so long and ably sustained the hottest part of the fight. On the other flank the artillery was left unsupported, and while the legions of the enemy came rushing down, its capture seemed inevitable. But Bragg and Thomas, assisted by Bryan, O'Brien, and Sherman, seemed to grow with the danger, and eclipsed even the fame they had won at Monterey. Every horse of O'Brien's battery was killed, and the enemy had advanced to within range of grape, sweeping all before them. But

here their progress was arrested by a storm of iron hail, by which all their squadrons and battalions were broken and scattered. Though suffering immense loss, they succeeded however in capturing three pieces of artillery which were without horses. This was the third occasion, during the day, in which when all seemed lost but honour, the artillery, by the ability with which it was manœuvred, rolled back the tide of success from the enemy and saved the army. But it was attended with a heavy loss to the Americans. While fighting most gallantly at the head of their respective commands, Colonel Hardin of the first Illinois regiment, and Colonel McKee and Lieutenant-colonel Clay of the second Kentucky, were each mortally wounded.

The battle had now raged with variable success for nearly ten hours, and after the last carnage, both parties seemed willing to pause upon the result. The approach of night gave the American general an opportunity to pay proper attention to the wounded, as also to refresh his soldiers, who were exhausted by excessive combat and watchfulness. Though the night was severely cold, most of the troops were compelled to bivouac without fires, expecting that morning would renew the conflict. During the night the wounded were removed to Saltillo, and every preparation made to receive the enemy. Seven fresh companies were drawn from the town, and Brigadier-general Marshall, with a reinforcement of Kentucky cavalry, and four heavy guns, under Captain Prentiss, first artillery, was near at hand, when it was discovered that the enemy had abandoned their position during the night. Scouts were sent after them, who soon ascertained that they had fallen back upon Agua Nueva. The great disparity of numbers, and the exhaustion of the troops, rendered it inexpedient and hazardous in the American commander to attempt a pursuit. A staff-officer was despatched to Santa Anna, to negotiate an exchange of prisoners, which was satisfactorily completed the next day. The dead were collected and buried; and the Mexican wounded, of which a large number had been left upon the field, were removed to Saltillo, and rendered as comfortable as circumstances would permit.

The numbers engaged in this great battle, and the losses of the respective armies as well as various other interesting details, have been given in another portion of this work. We have been more particular in giving an account of the various movements of the conflict in this place, in order to show in what manner and by what means a victory which has conferred the highest renown upon General Taylor was gained.

General Taylor now fixed his head-quarters at Walnut Springs. The retreat of Santa Anna left him no enemy to contend against; and, during the remainder of his stay in Mexico, he was chiefly employed in taking measures to secure the tract of country he had so gallantly subdued, and in suppressing the numerous guerilla bands that roamed between Matamoras and Monterey.

Among the slain at the battle of Buena Vista was Colonel Henry Clay, the son of the distinguished statesman, Henry Clay of Kentucky. General Taylor had a high esteem for the young officer, and, not long after the battle, he wrote the following noble letter to the bereaved parent:—

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Agua Nueva, Mexico, March 1, 1847.

My Dear Sir—You will no doubt have received, before this can reach you, the deeply distressing intelligence of the death of your son in the battle of Buena Vista. It is with no wish of intruding upon the sanctuary of parental sorrow, and with no hope of administering any consolation to your wounded heart, that I have taken the liberty of addressing you these few lines; but I have felt it a duty which I owe to the memory of the distinguished dead, to pay a willing tribute to his many excellent qualities, and while my feelings are still fresh, to express the desolation which his untimely loss and that of other kindred spirits has occasioned.

I had but a casual acquaintance with your son, until he became for a time a member of my military family, and I can truly say that no one ever won more rapidly upon my regard, or established a more lasting claim to my respect and esteem. Manly and honourable in every impulse, with no feeling but for the honour of the service and of the country, he gave every assurance that in the hour of need I could lean with confidence upon his support. Nor was I disappointed. Under the guidance of himself and the lamented McKee, gallantly did the sons of Kentucky, in the thickest of the strife, uphold the honour of the State and the country.

A grateful people will do justice to the memory of those who fell on that eventful day. But I may be permitted to express the bereavement which I feel in the loss of valued friends. To your son I felt bound by the strongest ties of private regard; and when I miss his familiar face, and those of McKee and Hardin, I can say with truth, that I feel no exultation in our success.

With the expression of my deepest and most heartfelt sympathies for your irreparable loss, I remain, Your friend,

Z. TAYLOR.

HON. HENRY CLAY, New Orleans, La.

In the spring of 1848, General Taylor returned to the United States. His reception at New Orleans was most enthusiastic. Every mark of honour was shown him. He then retired to repose for a time at his fine plantation on the Mississippi.

We are now to behold the general in a new field. He had always taken very little part in politics, and when the thunders of Palo Alto first proclaimed his renown, his partisan predilections or political sentiments were unknown. Independent men of both parties thought that they had found a new man for the presidency, and his name was mentioned in various parts of the Union in connection with that great office. His political position was defined in the following letter, published in the "Clinton Floridian," in the summer of 1847. It was addressed to a Democrat:—

CAMP NEAR MONTEEY, MEXICO, *June 9th*, 1847.

Dear Sir—Your letter of the 15th ult., from Clinton, Louisiana, has just reached me, in which you are pleased to say, "the signs of the times in relation to the next presidency, and the prominent position of your name in connection with it, is a sufficient excuse for this letter"—that "it is a happy feature in our government that official functionaries under it, from the lowest to the highest station, are not beyond the reach and partial supervision of the humblest citizen, and that it is a right in every freeman to possess himself of the political principles and opinions of those into whose hands the administration of the government may be placed," &c., in all of which I fully coincide with you in opinion. Asking my views on several subjects—"1st, as to the justice and necessity of this war with Mexico on our part; 2d, as to the necessity of a national bank, and the power of Congress for creating such an institution; 3d, as to the effects of a high protective tariff, and the right of Congress, under the constitution, to create such a system of revenue."

As regards the first interrogatory, with my duties and the position I occupy, I do not consider it would be proper in me to give any opinion in regard to the same; as a citizen, and particularly as a soldier, it is sufficient for me to know that our country is at war with a foreign nation, to do all in my power to bring it to a speedy and honourable termination, by the most vigorous and energetic operations, without inquiring about its justice or any thing else connected with it; believing, as I do, it is our wisest policy to be at peace with all the world, as long as it can be done without endangering the honour and interests of the country.

As regards the second and third inquiries, I am not prepared to answer them; I could only do so after investigating those subjects,

which I cannot now do; my whole time being fully occupied in attending to my proper official duties, which must not be neglected under any circumstances; and I must say to you in substance what I have said to others in regard to similar matters, that I am no politician. Near forty years of my life have been passed in the public service, in the army, most of which was in the field, the camp, on our Western frontier, or in the Indian country; and for nearly the two last in this or Texas, during which time I have not passed one night under the roof of a house.

As regards being a candidate for the presidency at the coming election, I have no aspirations in that way, and regret that the subject has been agitated at this early day, and that it had not been deferred until the close of this war, or until the end of the next session of Congress, especially if I am to be mixed up with it, as it is possible it may lead to the injury of the public service in this quarter, by my operations being embarrassed, as well as produce much excitement in the country, growing out of the discussion of the merits, &c., of the different aspirants for that high office, which might have been very much allayed, if not prevented, had the subject been deferred as suggested; besides, very many changes may take place between now and 1848, so much so, as to make it desirable for the interest of the country, that some other individual than myself, better qualified for the situation, should be selected; and could he be elected, I would not only acquiesce in such an arrangement, but would rejoice that the republic had one citizen, and no doubt there are thousands, more deserving than I am, and better qualified to discharge the duties of said office.

If I have been named by others, and considered a candidate for the presidency, it has been by no agency of mine in the matter—and if the good people think my services important in that station, and elect me, I will feel bound to serve them, and all the pledges and explanations I can enter into and make, as regards this or that policy, is, that I will do so honestly and faithfully to the best of my abilities, strictly in compliance with the constitution. Should I ever occupy the White House, it must be by the spontaneous move of the people, and by no act of mine, so that I could go into the office untrammelled, and be the chief magistrate of the nation and not of a party.

But should they, the people, change their views and opinions between this and the time of holding the election, and cast their votes for the presidency for some one else, I will not complain. With considerations of respect, I remain, your obedient servant,

Z. Taylor.

Mr. Edward Deluny.

As each victory increased the general's fame, it became certain that he would be nominated for the presidency. In the summer of 1848, a national convention of Whigs met at Philadelphia, and after several ballotings, nominated General Taylor as the Whig candidate for the chief magistracy. Millard Fillmore was placed upon the same ticket as a candidate for the vice-presidency. At the fall election these candidates received a handsome majority.

On the 4th of March, 1849, General Taylor was inaugurated President of the United States. He organized his cabinet as follows: —John M. Clayton, of Delaware, secretary of state; William M. Meredith, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, secretary of the interior—a department created at the preceding session of Congress; George W. Crawford, of Georgia, secretary of war; William B. Preston, of Virginia, secretary of the navy; Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, attorney-general; Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, postmaster-general.

President Taylor and his cabinet had the prospect of arduous work before them. Europe was convulsed with the uprisings of the people against tyrannical rulers, and the foreign relations of the country were, in consequence, somewhat complicated. A large tract of territory had been added to the domain of the republic, and means were to be devised for giving it an efficient government. The subject of slavery was agitated in all parts of the Union, and an intense excitement prevailed in both the North and the South. The opposition had a majority in Congress. Such a state of affairs required a bold, decided, able, and hard-working administration.

Congress met in December, 1849. In the senate, General Cass, of Michigan, introduced a resolution providing for the suspension of all diplomatic intercourse with Austria, on account of the atrocities perpetrated by that power after the insurgent Hungarians were suppressed. After a brilliant, and exciting debate, the resolution was rejected, not out of consideration for Austria, but on account of the Americans residing within the limits of that empire.

In the house there was much difficulty in effecting an organization. The candidates for speaker were Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, and Howell Cobb, of Georgia. On the sixty-fifth ballot, Mr. Cobb was chosen speaker by a small majority. During this exciting contest it was rendered evident that agitators on both sides of the slavery question intended to introduce the subject into every debate. Threats of dissolving the Union were made in both houses by prominent members, the distinguished statesman John C. Calhoun,

of South Carolina, being the chief assertor of secession and nullification doctrines.

At length, to restore harmony to the councils of the nation, a number of distinguished senators proposed a compromise embracing the whole difficulty of slavery. A committee of thirteen senators was appointed, the venerable Henry Clay being named as chairman, to consider and report upon the compromise resolutions. After much deliberation, this committee reported a series of measures to be united in one bill. Their objects were to admit California into the Union, with her constitution as a free State; to provide territorial governments for New Mexico and the Mormon region of Utah; to restore fugitive slaves to their masters; to abolish the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and to pay the State of Texas $10,000,000 to relinquish her claim upon New Mexico. This compromise measure was known as the "Omnibus Bill." The administration indicated that it was opposed to any such combination of measures, and also, that its policy was to admit California without any conditions, and to leave the question of slavery in the territories to the people who settled them. The other measures were deemed unnecessary at the time.

The debate upon the "Omnibus Bill" continued for about two months, a splendid array of talent being exhibited on both sides of the question. Finally, the measures were separated, slightly modified, and then passed by both houses, (August, 1850.) Some of these measures were violently denounced in various parts of the Union by ultra men. But comparative quiet was restored to the country.

In the spring of 1850, an expedition was organized in the southwestern part of the Union, with the object of revolutionizing the island of Cuba. General Narciso Lopez was the commander-in-chief. Supplies were collected and men enlisted. The government officials gaining intelligence of these movements, President Taylor issued a proclamation, expressing his determination to maintain the neutral laws of the United States, and declaring that those who violated them would place themselves beyond the protection of the government.

The reckless spirits engaged in the expedition were undaunted, however, and in the latter part of April, they rendezvoused at Contoy Island, in the Gulf, about seventy-five miles distant from Cuba. General Lopez, with about four hundred and fifty men, soon afterward sailed, in the steamer Creole, for the Cuban shore. On the morning of the 19th of May, the invaders landed at the town of Cardenas, and immediately engaged a superior force of Spanish

troops. The battle was brief. The Spaniards were routed, and Lopez retained full possession of the town. An appeal to the people to join his ranks was then issued, but few complied with his wishes, and even these could not obtain arms. In the latter part of the day some severe fighting took place, and the invaders suffered so much that they gave up the expedition, retired on board the Creole, and returned to the United States. Thus ended an expedition rashly undertaken and feebly executed. General Lopez and a number of distinguished Americans, who were supposed to have aided the expedition, were arrested by the United States, but no evidence could be obtained of their criminality, and they were therefore discharged.

After the compromise discussion and the Cuban expedition, the state of affairs in California was the chief source of interest during this administration. The golden wealth of that territory astonished the world. Immense quantities of the precious metal were sent to the Atlantic States and to Europe. In the mean time, the turbulent condition of the mining region and the important interests lacking regulation caused the General Government considerable anxiety.

By the passage of the compromise measures, California became a sovereign State, and thus a great source of anxiety in the Union and discontent in the mining regions was allayed.

While the compromise measures were under discussion in Congress, the nation was suddenly called to mourn the loss of its chief magistrate. President Taylor died of chronic diarrhœa, on the 9th of July, 1850. His illness was very short, and his death took the nation by surprise. His last words were expressive of his character—"I am ready. I have endeavoured to do my duty." His death, in the midst of a tremendous political storm, caused much lamentation throughout the Union. His obsequies were performed with every manifestation of the sincere grief of a people for the loss of a great public servant.

In person, General Taylor was about the middle height—very robust, and of an iron frame. His countenance was deeply furrowed, but he had an eye full of fire, and there was an expression of determination about his features which could not be mistaken. His manners were simple and natural. His mind was solid, but not brilliant—a mind, however, that rose with the demands upon its exertions, as was shown on his great battle-fields. As a general and a soldier he was one of the first the country has produced. Duty was ever his first thought, and in its performance he never cared for consequences.

JOHN M. CLAYTON.

John Middleton Clayton was born at Duggsboro', Sussex county, Delaware, in 1789. His father was a wealthy tanner of that place, and both parents were widely respected for their intelligence. After receiving an elementary education, young Clayton was sent to Yale College, where he graduated with high honour. Returning to his native State, he went to Dover and entered the law-office of George Read, Esq., at that time the leading lawyer of the State. In youth, Mr. Clayton was remarkable for energy, and a wonderful fluency of expression. After being admitted to the bar, he soon acquired reputation and influence, and his practice became lucrative. He continued to hold a high position, in spite of the rivalry of some of the ablest lawyers of the country. After holding various offices in the State, Mr. Clayton was elected to a seat in the national house of representatives. There he was distinguished as a debater. He was then elected to the senate of the United States, and took his seat March 4, 1829. In 1835 he was re-elected, and in 1837 he resigned his seat. During this period, Mr. Clayton was one of the leading men of the senate. He was a strenuous opponent of President Jackson's administration. In 1845 he was again elected to the senate, and he continued an active member of that body until March, 1849, when he was appointed secretary of state by President Taylor. He discharged the duties of that office with vigour and fidelity until the death of President Taylor, when he resigned. He returned to his beautiful farm called Buena Vista, about nine miles from Wilmington, and for some time led the life of a wealthy country gentleman. But his fellow-citizens were unwilling that he should remain in private life. He was appointed judge of the supreme court of the State, and in 1853, was again elected to the senate of the United States, where he continues a leading member.

Mr. Clayton is an ornament to the circle in which he moves, and no man is more admired and beloved by his neighbours. Many acts of generosity and benevolence are upon the records, to which his friends point as the evidence of his noble character. He enjoys vigorous health, the result of exceedingly active habits. He is a learned lawyer and experienced statesman, and as a parliamentary debater has had few superiors.

WILLIAM M. MEREDITH.

William Morris Meredith is a native of the city of Philadelphia, where he was born on the 8th of June, 1799. He received his education in his own city and State, at the University of Pennsylvania, in which institution he was received bachelor of arts at the annual commencement in July, 1812, having taken the second honour, and delivered the valedictory oration. The law was chosen as his profession, and he became a student in the office of his father, the late William Meredith, Esq., an eminent lawyer, and, after the usual course of study, was admitted in December, 1817. He commenced practice immediately after his admission, with a success that has attended the efforts of few of his contemporaries, and soon attained a most distinguished position at a bar the reputation of which is universal. In October, 1824, he was elected one of the representatives of his native city to the legislature of Pennsylvania, and continued to perform the duties of that office till the spring of 1828. The select council of Philadelphia, of which he was a member, elected him their president in 1834, in the place of Joseph R. Ingersoll, Esq., who had till then presided over that body. The revision of the constitution of Pennsylvania was committed by the people to a convention composed of many of her most eminent citizens, among whom Mr. Meredith served as one of the representative delegates of the city of Philadelphia. This body commenced its session at Harrisburg on the 2d of May, 1837, and continued its labours until its final adjournment on the 22d of February, 1838. General Harrison appointed Mr. Meredith district-attorney of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania in 1841, and he held the office for about fourteen months, and resigned it in the spring of 1842. On the election of General Taylor as President of the United States, he selected Mr. Meredith as one of his cabinet, and appointed him secretary of the treasury in March, 1849, an office which he held till the death of General Taylor in July, 1850, when, upon the resignation of the cabinet, he returned to the practice of his profession in Philadelphia.

GEORGE W. CRAWFORD.

This gentleman is a native of Georgia, in which State he studied law, and after his admission to the bar rose to considerable eminence in his profession. He at one period was a member of the house of representatives from that State.

On the occasion of General Taylor's nomination for the office of president, Mr. Crawford took a very active and efficient part.

Immediately on President Taylor's taking the chair, Mr. Crawford was appointed secretary of war, and his nomination was confirmed by the senate on the 7th of March, 1849. During the time that he was in office, certain claims were allowed by the government, in which it was alleged that Mr. Crawford was largely interested: a circumstance which was made the occasion of very severe comments by his political opponents. Mr. Crawford remained in office till after the decease of President Taylor, when he resigned, together with other members of the cabinet.

Edward Bates, of Missouri, was appointed to succeed him, and his nomination was confirmed by the senate; but he declined the office, and Charles M. Conrad accepted it, and was confirmed by the senate on the 15th of August, 1850.

WILLIAM BALLARD PRESTON.

Of this gentleman, after making a very careful and diligent search, we have been unable to find any biographical notice in any of the volumes, reviews or journals, in which such notices are generally published. He is a native of Virginia; was a member of Congress from that State previous to his elevation to the cabinet. He was appointed secretary of the navy immediately on the accession of Taylor to the presidential chair, and his nomination was approved by the senate on the 7th of March, 1849. He remained in office until the lamentable decease of President Taylor, when he resigned, with other members of the cabinet, and was succeeded by William A. Graham of North Carolina, on the 20th of July, 1850.

REVERDY JOHNSON.

This gentleman is a native of Annapolis, Maryland. He was educated there. He studied law, and early in life received an appointment as clerk in one of the departments of the State govern-

ment. He was subsequently elected a member of the legislature of Maryland. From this office he rose to that of senator in the legislature of the State, in which important and responsible station he served for seven years.

Removing to Baltimore, he entered upon the practice of the law, and soon rose to a first-rate position at the bar of that city, so remarkable for legal and forensic ability. He was elected president of one of the banks of the city.

Mr. Johnson was a member of the Senate of the United States from Maryland, his term of office commencing on the 4th of March, 1845, until March 3, 1851, when he resigned.

On the accession of General Taylor to office as President of the United States, Mr. Johnson received from him the very distinguished appointment of attorney-general, (7th of March, 1849,) the duties of which office he discharged with that eminent ability which his previous high character had led his friends to anticipate. On retiring from office, Mr. Johnson resumed the practice of the law in Baltimore.

JACOB COLLAMER.

Jacob Collamer was born at Troy, New York, in 1791, but removed when a child, with his father's family to Burlington, Vermont. He graduated in 1810 at the University of Vermont, which afterward, in 1849, conferred on him the degree of LL. D. He served as a subaltern in the detached militia of Vermont during the first campaign of the war of 1812. He commenced the practice of law in 1813 at Randolph, in the county of Orange, Vermont. He removed to Royalton in the county of Windsor in 1816, and there continued his practice, and for several years represented that town in the State legislature. In 1833, he was appointed a judge of the supreme court of the State, which office he held until 1841, when he resigned and returned to his practice in Woodstock, Vermont, where he still resides. In 1843, he was appointed a representative in Congress, in which office he was continued six years, and then declined reappointment.

On the accession of President Taylor, Judge Collamer was appointed postmaster-general, and continued in that office until the death of President Taylor, in July, 1850, when he, with the other members of the cabinet, resigned, and he returned to his home in Vermont, and was the same year appointed circuit judge, which office he held until October, 1854, when he was appointed to the United States Senate for six years from March, 1855.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

Millard Fillmore, Vice-President, and, upon the death of General Taylor, President of the United States, was born on the 7th of January, 1800, at Summer Hill, Cayuga County, New York. His father, Nathaniel Fillmore, who was descended from an English family, followed the occupation of a farmer, and in 1819, removed to Erie county, where he still lives, cultivating a small farm with his own hands. Owing to the humble circumstances of his father, Millard Fillmore's education was necessarily of the most imperfect kind, and at an early age he was sent to Livingston county, at that time a wild region, to learn the clothier's trade, and about four months later he was apprenticed to a wool-carder, in the town in which his father lived. During the four years that he worked at his trade, he availed himself of every opportunity of improving his mind, and supplying the defects of his early education. At the age of nineteen he made the acquaintance of the late Judge Wood, of Cayuga county, who detected in the humble apprentice talents which would qualify him for a higher station. He accordingly offered to receive him into his office, and to defray his expenses during the time of his studies. Mr. Fillmore accepted the proposal, but that he might not incur too large a debt to his benefactor, he devoted a portion of his time to teaching school. In 1821 he removed to Erie county, and pursued his legal studies in the city of Buffalo. Two years later he was admitted to the common pleas, and commenced the practice of the law at Aurora in the same county. In 1827 he was admitted as an attorney, and in 1829, as a counsellor in the supreme court, and in the following year he removed to Buffalo, where he entered into partnership with an elder member of the bar.

Mr. Fillmore's political life commenced with his election to the

Millard Fillmore

State assembly, in which body he took his seat in 1829, as a member from the county of Erie. Being a member of the Whig party, he was at that time in opposition, and had little opportunity to distinguish himself, but he took a prominent part in assisting to abolish imprisonment for debt in the State. In 1832 he was elected to Congress, and took his seat the following year. In 1835, at the close of his term of office, he resumed the practice of the law, until he once more consented to be a candidate for Congress, and took his seat again in 1837. During this session he took a more prominent part in the business of the house than during his former term, and he was assigned a place on one of the most important committees—that on elections. He was successively re-elected to the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh Congresses, and in both of them distinguished himself as a man of talents and great business capacity. At the close of the first session of the twenty-seventh Congress, he signified to his constituents his intention not to be a candidate for re-election, returned to Buffalo, and again devoted himself to his profession, of which he had become one of the most distinguished members in the State. In 1844 he was prevailed upon to accept the nomination by the Whig party, for governor of the State of New York, but he shared in the general defeat of his party. In 1847, however, he was consoled for his defeat by his election to the office of comptroller of the State, by an unprecedented majority. In 1848 he was nominated by the Whigs as their candidate for vice-president, and elected to that office in the fall of the same year. In March, 1849, he resigned his office of comptroller, to assume the duties of his new position, and in the discharge of those high and delicate duties, he acquitted himself with dignity and ability, until the death of General Taylor, in July, 1850, elevated him to the presidential chair.*

Upon the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the presidency, the members of the cabinet immediately resigned, in consequence of a difference of opinion upon the compromise measures. Mr. Fillmore then organized a new cabinet as follows:—Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, secretary of state; Thomas Corwin, of Ohio, secretary of the treasury; Alexander H. H. Stuart, of Virginia, secretary of the interior; Charles M. Conrad, of Louisiana, secretary of war; William A. Graham, of North Carolina, secretary of the navy; John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, attorney-general; Nathan K. Hall, of New York, postmaster-general. Before the close of Mr. Fillmore's administration, Mr. Graham retired from the navy department, and

* Men of the Time.

John P. Kennedy, of Maryland, was appointed to succeed him; and toward the close of 1852, Daniel Webster died, and was succeeded as secretary of state by Edward Everett, of Massachusetts. These were the only changes in the cabinet during this administration.

It was expected that the president's policy would be decidedly of a Whig complexion; but as the opposition had a majority in Congress, no great measure of the administration party could be carried out. The president recommended the protective policy in regard to the tariff, but no alteration of importance was made in the tariff adopted in 1846.

The foreign relations of the Union had occupied a great share of attention during General Taylor's administration. Difficulties had occurred with England, France, Spain, and Portugal, all of which were finally settled under Mr. Fillmore's administration. A treaty was negotiated with England, by which a route across Central America was secured to both nations. The French minister was dismissed; but his place was soon filled by a more agreeable personage. Spain's apprehensions in regard to the designs of the United States upon Cuba were quieted for a time. The difficulty with Portugal concerned indemnification for the destruction of the privateer General Armstrong in a Portuguese port during the war of 1812. Being submitted to the arbitration of President Bonaparte, of France, he decided in favour of Portugal. In December, 1850, a racy correspondence occurred between Secretary Webster and the Austrian minister, the Chevalier Hulsemann, concerning an alleged interference of the United States in Hungarian affairs. Mr. Webster's reply to the letter of the chevalier was generally considered a masterly vindication of the power and position of the United States, and it remains a model paper for the study of statesmen.

The failure of the expedition to revolutionize Cuba in 1850 did not end the efforts of General Lopez and his friends. Preparations were secretly made for an expedition on a more extensive scale under the command of the same general. The signs were unmistakable, and the officers of the government active in gaining intelligence of the movement. The president issued a proclamation similar in character to that issued by President Taylor, when the first Cuban expedition was prepared. Nevertheless, men were enlisted, and supplies collected in several Southern ports, and in August, the steamer Pampero, with General Lopez and about four hundred men on board, sailed for Cuba. The troops landed at the town of Bahia Honda. None of the inhabitants joined them in accordance with their expectations, and they were left alone to combat the greatly superior forces

of the Spanish government. The country swarmed with persons hostile to the invaders. But supplies were wanting, and Lopez determined to press forward to the interior of the country, taking to the mountains as a last refuge. Colonel Crittenden, with sixty men, was left in charge of the baggage. This detachment was attacked by a large body of Spaniards and routed. Colonel Crittenden, and fifty-two of his men, attempting to escape in open boats, were picked up by the Spanish frigate Pizarro, and taken in irons to Havana. Their trial and punishment were of a summary character —all were shot.

In the mean time, General Lopez was attacked by large numbers of regular Spanish troops, and compelled to fight with desperation. The Spaniards were repulsed with great slaughter. But being reinforced, they returned to the attack, and, after an obstinate conflict, routed the invaders, who dispersed among the mountains. Most of them were killed or captured. General Lopez was made prisoner and taken to Havana, where he was shortly afterward put to death by the *garote*, a Spanish instrument of execution. A large number of the invaders who had been captured were imprisoned by the captain-general, Concha, and afterward sent to Spain. The queen, with commendable moderation, pardoned them all, and had them sent back to the United States. Thus ended another rash attempt to revolutionize the island of Cuba. Its tendencies were to increase the desire of the people in some portions of the United States to possess that fertile island, and to excite the alarm, not only of Spain, but of other European nations who had colonies adjacent to the great republic.

On the 24th of September, 1852, the secretary of state, Daniel Webster, a statesman and orator almost unrivalled in the annals of the country, expired at Marshfield, Massachusetts, at the age of sixty-eight years. Henry Clay, the great statesman of the West, had died at Washington but a few months before. The death of these distinguished men left a void in the national councils which was extremely difficult to fill. The country mourned for them, and in all the chief cities eulogies were pronounced in honour of their memory. Mr. Webster was succeeded in the office of the secretary of state by Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, who soon found an opportunity to distinguish himself in the conduct of foreign affairs.

Apprehending that the United States government entertained designs upon Cuba, Lord John Russell, the British minister of foreign affairs, proposed that Great Britain, France, and the United States should enter into a tripartite treaty, securing that island to the crown

of Spain forever. Mr. Everett rejected this proposal in a lengthy letter, which, by its force of logic, national spirit, and brilliancy of style, excited general admiration. The tripartite treaty was clearly shown to be totally incompatible with the true interest and the progressive policy of the republic. Lord John Russell replied to the letter of the American secretary, assailed his arguments in a rather sarcastic tone, and concluded by saying that Great Britain would thenceforward be perfectly free to pursue her own separate policy in regard to Cuba. This reply was not made directly to the American department of state, but in an epistle to Mr. Crampton, the British minister at Washington; and it did not arrive in the United States until a new administration had been inaugurated, and Mr. Everett had retired from office. From the nature of the reply and the character of its direction, Mr. Everett considered himself called upon to vindicate his position, and he did this in a published letter even more remarkable for ability and eloquence than the former epistle from the state department. The following passage is in vindication of the course pursued by President Fillmore's administration:—

"There is no doubt widely prevalent in this country a feeling that the people of Cuba are justly disaffected to the government of Spain. A recent impartial French traveller, M. Ampere, confirms this impression. All the ordinary political rights enjoyed in free countries, are denied to the people of that island. The government is, in principle, the worst form of despotism, viz., absolute authority delegated to a military viceroy, and supported by an army from abroad. I speak of the nature of the government, and not of the individuals by whom it is administered—for I have formed a very favorable opinion of the personal character of the present captain-general, as of one or two of his predecessors. Of the bad faith and the utter disregard of treaties with which this bad government is administered, your committees on the slave trade have spoken plainly enough at the late session of parliament. Such being the state of things in Cuba, it does not seem to me very extraordinary or reproachful, that, throughout the United States, a handful of misguided young men should be found ready to join a party of foreigners, headed by a Spanish general, who was able to persuade them, not as you view it, 'by armed invasion to excite the obedient to revolt, and the tranquil to disturbance,' but, as they were led to believe, to aid an oppressed people in their struggles for freedom.

"There is no reason to doubt that there are, at this moment, as many persons, foreigners as well as natives, in England, who entertain these feelings and opinions as in the United States; and if Great

Britain lay at a distance of one hundred and ten miles from Cuba, instead of thirty-five hundred, you might not, with all your repressive force, find it easy to prevent a small steamer, disguised as a trading vessel, from slipping off from an outport in the night on an unlawful enterprise. The expedition of General Torrijos in 1831, as far as illegality is concerned, is the parallel of that of General Lopez. It was fitted out in the Thames, without interruption till the last moment, and though it then fell under the grasp of the police, its members succeeded in escaping to Spain, where for some time they found shelter at Gibraltar. It is declared in the last number of the Quarterly Review to be 'notorious that associations have been formed at London for the subversion of dynasties with which England is at peace; that arms have been purchased and loans proposed; that 'Central Committees' issue orders from England, and that Messrs. Mazzini and Kossuth have established and preside over boards of regency for the Roman States and Hungary, and for the promotion of revolution in every part of the world.' I have before me a list, purporting to be taken from a Prussian Police Gazette, of fifteen associations of continental refugees organized in London and now in action for the above-mentioned purposes.

"When these things are considered, the fact that in the course of four or five years two inconsiderable and abortive efforts have been made from the United States, though deeply to be lamented and sternly to be condemned as a violation of municipal and international law, does not appear to me so 'shocking' as it seems to be thought by you. It does not, in my judgment, furnish any ground for the reproaches which it has drawn upon the government and people of the United States. Nor does the remark in my letter of the 1st of December, that a disposition to engage in such enterprises would be increased rather than diminished by our accession to the proposed convention, strike me as 'a melancholy avowal,' as you pronounced it, on the part of the president. You forget the class from which such adventurers are, in all countries, enlisted—the young, the reckless, the misinformed. What other effect could be expected to be produced on this part of the population, by being told that their own government, in disregard of the most obvious public interests, as well as of the most cherished historical traditions, had entered into a compact with two foreign powers to guaranty the perpetuity of the system under which Cuba now suffers? Does not Lord Howden, the English minister at Madrid, make a very similar avowal in his letter of the 30th of May last, addressed to the Spanish minister of Foreign Affairs, when he says, 'I cannot conclude without expressing my

deep regret that the course of Spain is such as to produce a general alienation in the opinion of the English public, out of which will most infallibly result a state of feeling *which no government can control or oppose.*'

"The idea that a convention like that proposed was a measure naturally called for, in consequence of these lawless expeditions, seems to rest upon an entire misconception of the present state of the law in the United States, and of our treaty relations with Spain. Our treaties with that government and the laws of the United States forbid all such enterprises. The tripartite convention would have added nothing to their unlawfulness. If we had been desirous of multiplying objections, we might well have complained that the acts of a very small number of rash young men, citizens and foreigners, should be put forward by two of the leading powers of Europe as the main reason why we should be expected to enter into a strange compact with those powers, binding ourselves never to make a lawful and honourable acquisition of Cuba. There is no logical connection between the ideas, and there is something bordering upon the offensive in their association.

"Consider, too, the recent antecedents of the powers that invite us to disable ourselves to the end of time from the acquisition in any way of this natural appendage to our continent. France, within the present century, to say nothing of the acquisition of Louisiana, has wrested a moiety of Europe from its native sovereigns; has possessed herself by force of arms, and at the time greatly to the discontent of England, of six hundred miles of the northern coast of Africa, with an indefinite extension into the interior, and has appropriated to herself one of the most important insular groups of the Pacific. England, not to mention her other numerous recent acquisitions in every part of the globe, has, even since your despatch of the 16th of February was written, annexed half of the Burman empire to her overgrown Indian possessions, on grounds—if the statements in Mr. Cobden's pamphlet are to be relied upon—compared with which the reasons assigned by Russia for invading Turkey are respectable.

"The United States do not require to be advised of the utility of those rules for the observance of international relations, which for centuries have been known to Europe by the name of the 'Law of Nations.' They are known and obeyed by us under the same venerable name. Certain circumstances in our history have caused them to be studied more generally and more anxiously here than in Europe. From the breaking out of the wars of the French Revolution, to the year 1812, the United States knew the law of nations only as the

victims of its systematic violation by the great maritime powers of Europe. For these violations on the part of England, prior to 1794, indemnification was made under the seventh article of Jay's Treaty. For similar injuries on the part of France, we were compelled to accept an illusory set-off under the convention of 1800.

"A few years only elapsed, before a new warfare upon our neutral rights was commenced by the two powers. One hundred millions at least of American property were swept from the seas, under the British orders in council and the French Berlin, and Milan decrees. These orders and decrees were at the time reciprocally declared to be in contravention of the law of nations by the two powers themselves, each speaking of the measures of the other party.

"In 1831, after the generation of the original sufferers had sunk under their ruined fortunes to the grave, France acknowledged her decrees to have been of that character, by a late and partial measure of indemnification. For our enormous losses under the British orders in council, we not only never received indemnification, but the sacrifices and sufferings of the war were added to those spoliations on our commerce, and invasion of our neutral rights, which led to its declaration. Those orders were at the time regarded by the Lansdownes, the Barings, the Broughams, and the other enlightened statesmen of the school to which you belonged, as a violation of right and justice as well of sound policy; and within a very few years the present distinguished Lord Chief Justice, placed by yourself at the head of the tribunals of England, has declared that 'the orders in council were grievously unjust to neutrals, and *it is now generally allowed that they were contrary to the law of nations and our own municipal law?*'

"That I call, my Lord, to borrow your expression, 'a melancholy avowal' for the chief of the jurisprudence of a great empire. Acts of its sovereign authority, countenanced by its parliament, rigidly executed by its fleets on every sea, enforced in the courts of admiralty by a magistrate whose learning and eloquence are among the modern glories of England, persisted in till the lawful commerce of a neutral and kindred nation was annihilated, and pronounced by the highest legal authority of the present day, contrary not merely to the law of nations but your own municipal law!

"Under these circumstances, the government and people of the United States, who have never committed nor sanctioned a violation of the law of nations against any other power, may well think it out of place, that they should be instructed by an English minister in 'the utility of these rules which, for centuries, have been known to Europe by the name of the law of nations.'

"There are several other points in your despatch, some of great public moment, which, if I were still in office, I should discuss on this occasion. I have, however, deemed it proper at present, to confine myself to such remarks as seemed necessary to vindicate my letter of the 1st of December, from your strictures, leaving the new aspects of the case which your despatch presents, especially in its opening and closing paragraphs, to those whose official duty it is to consider them."

The elections throughout the States during President Fillmore's administration had generally resulted in adding strength to the opposition. In 1852, the national convention of the Democratic party assembled at Baltimore. Resolutions, embodying the principles of the party, were adopted. A large number of candidates were brought before the convention, and forty-nine ballotings were held before a nomination for the presidency could be made. Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, was the nominee. William R. King, of Alabama, was placed upon the same ticket as a candidate for the vice-presidency. Soon after the adjournment of this convention, the national convention of the Whig party assembled in the same city. A platform of principles was adopted. The candidates for the great nomination were General Winfield Scott, President Fillmore, and Secretary Webster. On the fifty-third ballot General Scott received the nomination for president. William A. Graham, of North Carolina, was nominated for the vice-presidency. Both of these national conventions sanctioned, in express terms, the compromise measures. In August, a "Free Soil" convention was held at Pittsburgh, and John P. Hale, of New Hampshire, and George W. Julian, of Indiana, were nominated for the presidency and vice-presidency. Other candidates were nominated in various sections of the Union.

At the election in November of the same year, the candidates of the National Democratic party received majorities in all but four States—Vermont, Massachusetts, Kentucky and Tennessee, in which the Whig candidates obtained majorities. The opposition were, therefore, triumphant.

President Fillmore's final message to Congress in December, contained a lucid review of the condition of affairs in the republic, and an argument for the protective policy. Its recommendations were of but little importance to the opposition majority in Congress. The session was chiefly occupied by discussions upon the foreign relations of the Union, especially concerning the movements of Great Britain, Spain, and Mexico. No measure of general importance was adopted. An act, creating the rank of lieutenant-general, intended as a par-

ticular honour to General Winfield Scott, passed the senate, but was laid upon the table in the house. The increase of special legislation was particularly remarkable during this session.

Mr. Fillmore's term of office expired on the 4th of March, 1853, when he retired to his home in Buffalo, New York. Mr. Fillmore was married in 1826, to Miss Abigail Powers, daughter of the late Lemuel Powers. He is one of those self-made men of whom America is justly proud, as a galaxy which sheds unfading lustre upon her beneficent institutions.

EDWARD EVERETT.

Edward Everett, who was secretary of state during the latter part of President Fillmore's administration, was born in Dorchester, Massachusetts, in April, 1794. His father was a clergyman in Boston. He received his early education at Boston, and entered Harvard College when little more than thirteen years old, leaving it with first honours four years later. He turned his attention for two years to the profession of divinity; but, in 1814, he was invited to accept the new professorship of Greek literature at Cambridge, Massachusetts, with permission to visit Europe. He accepted the office; and, before entering on its duties, embarked at Boston for Liverpool. He passed more than two years at the famous university of Göttingen, engaged in the study of the German language and the branches of learning connected with his department. He passed the winter of 1817–18 at Paris. The next spring he again visited London, and passed a few weeks at Cambridge and Oxford. While in England, he acquired the friendship of some of the most eminent men of the day; among others, of Scott, Byron, Jeffrey, Campbell, Mackintosh, Romilly, and Davy. In the autumn of 1818, he returned to the continent, and divided the winter between Florence, Rome, and Naples. In the spring of 1819, he made a short tour in Greece.

Mr. Everett came home in 1819, and entered at once upon the duties of his professorship. Soon after his return, he became the editor of the "North American Review," a journal, which, though supported by writers of great ability, had acquired only a limited circulation. Under its new editor, the demand increased so rapidly that a second and sometimes a third edition of its numbers was required. One of his first cares as editor was to vindicate American principles and institutions against a crowd of British travellers and

critics, who were endeavouring to bring them into contempt. The spirit with which he performed his task checked this system of assault; and Campbell, who had inadvertently admitted into "The New Monthly Magazine" a paper of the same description, made a handsome *amende*.

In 1824, Mr. Everett delivered the annual oration before the Phi-Beta-Kappa Society, at Cambridge, Massachusetts. This was the first of a series of orations and addresses delivered by Everett on public occasions of almost every kind during a quarter of a century, and lately collected in two volumes. Up to 1824, he had taken no active interest in politics; but his articles in the Review had evinced his acquaintance with the wants and spirit of the nation, and his recent oration had brought him prominently before the public. The constituency of Middlesex, Massachusetts, without any solicitation on his part, returned him to Congress by a great majority over the regular candidate. For ten years he sat in Congress, and proved himself a working member, never taking advantage of his superior powers to detain the house with oratorical display, but taking part in every debate of importance. In 1835 he retired from Congress, and was for four successive years chosen governor of Massachusetts. In 1839 he was again a candidate for the same honour, but was defeated on local questions by a majority of one out of more than one hundred thousand votes. In 1841 he was appointed to represent the United States at the Court of St. James, a position for which he was peculiarly qualified by his knowledge of the European tongues, and his acquaintance with the then mooted boundary question.

Although the secretaryship of state at Washington was held by four different statesmen, of various politics, during Everett's mission, he enjoyed the confidence and approbation of all. His intelligence, and assiduous habits won him great respect in England; and his scholarship was recognised in the bestowal of the degree of D. C. L. by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. He returned to America in 1845, and was chosen president of Harvard College, which office he resigned in 1849. For a short period, he lived in retirement at Boston, employed upon his promised "Treatise on the Law of Nations." Upon the death of Mr. Webster, in the latter part of 1852, Mr. Fillmore tendered the post of secretary of state to Mr. Everett. He accepted the honour, and during his short term of service, distinguished himself by a splendid vindication of American policy, in a reply to Lord John Russell, who had proposed a

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* Men of the Time.

tripartite treaty securing Spain in the possession of Cuba. A rejoinder was written after the close of Mr. Fillmore's administration, which displayed equal ability. Soon afterward, Mr. Everett was elected to a seat in the senate of the United States, in which body he has been distinguished as an eloquent and powerful debater and a dignified legislator. Mr. Everett has been called the Cicero of his country, and, perhaps, no other American has so many of the qualities of the great Roman. But he has a firmness and decision of character of which Cicero could not boast.

THOMAS CORWIN.

Thomas Corwin, secretary of the treasury under Mr. Fillmore, was born in Bourbon county, Kentucky, in 1801. His parents were poor, and he enjoyed no educational advantages. In early life, he removed to Ohio, where he served for a time as a wagon-boy. But he possessed great natural powers of mind, and an unquenchable thirst for knowledge. By the most incredible exertions, he obtained a scanty education, and then turned his attention to the study of the law. On being admitted to the bar, his genius as an advocate and orator shone forth, and soon placed him in the front rank of Western lawyers. While still young, he was elected a member of the Ohio legislature, where he was a leading spirit. In 1831 he was elected from the Warren district a representative in Congress. He continued to be among the most eloquent members of the house until 1840, when he was elected governor of Ohio by a large majority. In 1842, Mr. Corwin was again a candidate, but Wilson Shannon, his opponent, was then successful. In 1845 he was elected to a seat in the United States Senate. While in that body, he made an eloquent speech against the prosecution of the Mexican war. In 1850 he accepted the post of secretary of the treasury, tendered him by President Fillmore. Since his retirement from that department, he has taken no active part in politics. Mr. Corwin is a man of powerful talents. As a pleader in criminal cases, it is questionable if he has a superior in the United States. In his early life, he was remarkable for firmness and indomitable energy; but latterly he has been content to rest on his laurels.

ALEXANDER H. H. STUART.

It is not surprising that the large number of able and accomplished men who have owed their birth to the State of Virginia should have confirmed that commonwealth in the title which she has so long borne, of the Ancient Dominion. Every administration of the government, from the organization under the federal constitution to the present time, has sought to strengthen itself by the appointment of Virginians to important executive offices; and every administration has felt the benefit of this course.

Mr. Stuart is a native of the Ancient Dominion. He was born in Westmoreland county, in the western part of Virginia, where he rose to distinction as a member of the bar. He served for a considerable time as a member of Congress, and soon after Mr. Fillmore's accession to office he was appointed secretary of the interior. This department of the government had been recently created by act of Congress, in 1849, and Mr. Stuart was the fourth to take his seat as a member of the cabinet in the capacity of secretary of the interior, on the 12th of September, 1850. On his retirement from office, he resumed the practice of his profession at Staunton, Virginia, where he now resides.

CHARLES M. CONRAD.

The post of secretary of war was offered to a number of distinguished Whigs by President Fillmore. But all declined the honour except Charles M. Conrad, then a distinguished member of the house of representatives from Louisiana. This gentleman was born in Louisiana, about 1800. He was the son of a wealthy planter, from whom he afterward inherited one of the finest estates in the whole South. He received a classical education, and then studied law. After being admitted to the bar, he acquired a large practice. He took an active part in politics, and after the accession of General Jackson to the presidency, became known in his section of the country as a member of the Whig party. In 1847, he was elected to a seat in the national house of representatives, in which body his talents and oratorial powers were creditably displayed. In July, 1850.

President Taylor died; and when the melancholy event was announced in the house of representatives, Mr. Conrad arose and delivered an eloquent eulogy, from which we quote a specimen of his talent for oratory. Alluding to General Taylor's well-known aversion to political controversy, he said—

"The excitement of politics had no charm for one who had always been extremely averse to political controversy. The pomp and splendour of the presidential mansion had no temptations for one who was always remarkable for the simplicity of his tastes and the frugality of his habits. Add to this, that his unaffected modesty and inexperience in public affairs led him sincerely to distrust his ability to discharge the duties of this high and responsible station.

"At no period of our history, indeed, was the executive chair surrounded by more difficulties than those which encompassed it when he was called on to occupy it. Party spirit was still raging with unabated fury; a dark cloud was visible on the horizon, which portended that a storm of unusual violence was approaching, and would shortly burst forth. Under such circumstances, a man even of stouter heart than his might well hesitate before he consented to embark on this 'sea of troubles.' Yielding, however, to the public voice, and to the arguments and persuasion of his friends, he did embark. The tempest arose; and in the midst of its fury, while the vessel of state was tossed to and fro, and all eyes were turned with a confidence not unmingled with anxiety on the pilot who, calm and collected, guided her course, that pilot was suddenly swept from the helm!

"Here let us pause! Let us avail ourselves of the momentary calm which this sad event has produced, and calmly survey the perils that surround us—the lowering heavens above, the raging billows below, the breakers on our right, the shoals on our left. Let us prepare to meet these dangers like men, and like patriots to overcome them. Let us not despair of the republic. On the contrary, let us determine that she *must* be saved, and she will be saved. The clouds that overhang us will be dispersed, and the glorious stars of our Union will again shine forth with their wonted splendour."

Soon afterward, Mr. Conrad was called to preside over the department of war. He discharged the duties of that office faithfully until the expiration of Mr. Fillmore's term of office, after which he retired to his beautiful house in Louisiana. Mr. Conrad is a fine specimen of the Southern gentleman, and enjoys the reputation of being amiable and agreeable in social intercourse, as active and able in public life.

WILLIAM H. GRAHAM.

William H. Graham, secretary of the navy under Mr. Fillmore, was born in North Carolina in 1800. After receiving an excellent education, he studied law, and, being admitted to the bar, soon rose to distinction. He was elected to the legislature, and served from 1841 to 1843. In August, 1844, he was elected governor of the State, to which office he was re-elected in 1846. At the expiration of his second term in January, 1849, he retired from public life for a short time. But upon the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the presidency, he was chosen on account of his ability and popularity to fill the position of secretary of the navy. In 1852, he was nominated as the candidate of the Whig party for the vice-presidency, but was unsuccessful. Since that event, he has lived in retirement.

JOHN P. KENNEDY.

John Pendleton Kennedy, of Maryland, succeeded Mr. Graham, of North Carolina, as secretary of the navy. He was born in Baltimore, October, 1795. He studied law and practised in that city until 1838, when he was elected to the house of representatives in the federal legislature, and served in that body through the twenty-fifth, twenty-seventh, and twenty-eighth Congresses. Elected in 1846 to the house of delegates of Maryland, (of which he had been a member in the sessions of 1820–22,) he was made speaker, and took an active part in the measure which was then adopted to resume the payment of the State debt, and the restoration of the public credit. In 1849 he was chosen by the regents of the university of Maryland, to preside over that institution as provost. Among various political tracts, speeches, reports, and addresses of his which have been published, we may mention, as among the best known, "A Review of Mr. Cambreling's Free-trade Report, by Mephistopheles," in 1830; "The Memorial of the Permanent Committee of the New York Convention of Friends of Domestic Industry," in 1833; an elaborate report on "The Commerce and Navigation of the United States, by the Committee of Commerce," (of which Mr. Kennedy was chairman,) in 1842, and a report from the same com-

mittee on "The Warehouse System," in 1843; "A Defence of the Whigs," being a history of the twenty-seventh Congress, and of the manifesto against the Tyler administration, (of which manifesto Mr. Kennedy was the author,) in 1844. Besides these, he has published several pamphlets and tracts, in defence of the protective system, of which he is a strenuous and zealous advocate. In the field of general literature, he is known to the public as the author of "Swallow Barn, a Sojourn in the Old Dominion," "Horse-Shoe Robinson," "Rob of the Bowl," "Quod Libet," "Memoirs of the Life of William Wirt, late Attorney-general of the United States," sundry historical, biographical, and literary discourses, essays, and reviews, which have not yet been collected into volumes. Mr. Kennedy is an active member of the Historical Society of Maryland, of which he is the vice-president, and is an occasional contributor to the periodicals of the day. On the resignation of Mr. Graham, in July, 1852, Mr. Kennedy was appointed secretary of the navy.* He continued in that position until the close of Mr. Fillmore's administration. Mr. Kennedy is a brilliant writer and an effective speaker.

NATHAN K. HALL.

Nathan K. Hall, postmaster-general under Mr. Fillmore's administration, was born on the 28th of March, 1810, in Onondaga county, New York. He studied law in the office of Mr. Fillmore, and became his law-partner at Buffalo, New York. He soon became distinguished, and was successively elected to the legislature and to Congress. On Mr. Fillmore's accession to the presidency, Mr. Hall was appointed postmaster-general. He now practises his profession at Buffalo.

* Men of the Time.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

Franklin Pierce, the fifteenth President of the United States, was born at Hillsborough, New Hampshire, on the 23d of November, 1804. His father, a man of the most energetic character, and possessing great natural abilities, had been a soldier of the Revolution, and, in 1827, was elected governor of New Hampshire.

Entering Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, Maine, in 1820, young Pierce graduated with high honours as a scholar in 1824. By his classmates he is remembered as an officer of a college military company, and as an occasional teacher of a country school, where no regular tutor could be obtained.

After leaving college, he entered upon the study of the law, in the office of Judge Woodbury, at Portsmouth. In 1827 he was admitted to the bar, and began to practise in the town of his nativity. In his first case, he met with marked ill success. But this failure, instead of discouraging, did but animate him to greater exertion. The latent strength of his mind was brought out by it, and all the energy and perseverance of his character called into play. Many years, however, went by, before he arrived at that distinction at the bar which was the object of his efforts.

Meanwhile, he entered actively into the arena of politics, being a warm admirer and enthusiastic friend of General Jackson, then a candidate for the presidency. His political life soon became noticeable. In 1829 he was chosen to represent his native town in the legislature of the State. He remained in that body four years, during the two latter of which he served as speaker of the house.

In 1833, Mr. Pierce was elected to Congress from his native district. Continuing a very retiring but yet active and laborious member of the house of representatives for two successive terms, he was,

Frank Pierce

in 1837, when scarcely of the age required by law, elected to a seat in the senate of the United States.

At that period, the senate was graced by the active presence of an unusual number of statesmen, whose combined wisdom and eloquence it would have been difficult to match by any similar body of legislators in the civilized world. His native modesty kept down the oratorical efforts of Mr. Pierce in so brilliant an assembly, yet he more than once displayed excellent abilities as an eloquent and judicious speaker.

In the month of June, 1848, he resigned his seat in the senate, and withdrew to private life, there to repair by the practice of his profession, the inroads which had been made upon his means during thirteen years of indefatigable labour in the public service.

Taking up his residence at Concord, the capital of New Hampshire, Mr. Pierce soon became celebrated as one of the first men of the bar of his native State. Legal knowledge, self-possession, and an acquaintance with human nature, were qualifications he possessed in an eminent degree. His language was copious and select, his gestures graceful and appropriate, his voice flexible and sonorous, and well under command, and his argumentation convincing and logical.

In 1846 he declined the post of United States attorney-general offered him by President Polk. Previously, the position of United States senator had been tendered him by the chief executive of New Hampshire; but this he also declined, as well as the subsequent Democratic nomination as a candidate for the gubernatorial chair of the State.

In 1847, when a call was made upon New Hampshire for volunteers to participate in the war with Mexico, Mr. Pierce hastened to enroll himself as a private in the first company formed at Concord. His patriotism, however, soon met with the reward it deserved. Being presently appointed colonel of the 9th regiment, he was, in March of the same year, commissioned by President Polk as a brigadier-general in the United States army.

Embarking at Newport, Rhode Island, on the 27th of May, General Pierce and his command reached Vera Cruz after a voyage of thirty days. Here he found the most violent form of yellow fever raging, and was himself taken very ill. But his nature was benevolent, and his own sickness, however distressing, did not deter him from seeing to the wants and to the health of his men, whom he had conveyed, partly at his own expense, to the most healthy point on the coast.

At length, after a delay of some three weeks, he was enabled to

push on to reinforce General Scott, whom he joined at Puebla—having passed through a rugged region, strong in natural defences, and swarming with wily and ferocious enemies, whose attacks he successfully encountered six times, without the loss of a single wagon of his immense train. In one of these engagements, which took place at the celebrated National Bridge, on the main road to the city of Mexico, he made a narrow escape from death, a musket-ball having carried away the rim of his hat.

Being joined by the troops under General Pierce on the 9th of August, Scott immediately broke up his encampment and began his march against the Mexican capital. On the 19th, the sanguinary conflict of Contreras took place. Here General Pierce signally distinguished himself by his bravery and perseverance. Leading his column through a tremendous fire of the enemy's artillery, his horse fell under him upon a ledge of rocks. Crushed and severely bruised though he was, the general, at his own earnest request, was presently assisted to mount another horse, and continued in the saddle until eleven o'clock that night, in the midst of a most severe storm of rain. At early dawn of the 20th he was again in the field, and, with his command, assisted materially in completing the defeat of the enemy, which had been but partially accomplished by the successes of the previous day.

The flying remnant of the Mexican forces, having reached Churubusco and San Antonio, took up a position within shelter of the strong works at those places. Continuing the pursuit, the Americans came up with the enemy, about one o'clock in the afternoon of the 20th, when the great conflict, known as the battle of Churubusco, was begun.

The Mexican line was in good array and made a brilliant appearance. It was assaulted with energy and broken. Reaching, at the head of his troops, a ditch which his horse could not leap, General Pierce, forgetful of his injuries dismounted, and hurried into the midst of the enemy's fire. Turning suddenly upon his knee, which had been badly sprained the day before, he fell faint and almost insensible. Some of his soldiers approached and proposed to bear him off the field. Having partially revived, he forbade them to do so, and there lay under a deadly fire until the Mexicans were completely routed.

After his defeat at Churubusco, Santa Anna, the Mexican commander-in-chief, proposed an armistice, with a view, as was supposed, to the arrangement of a treaty of peace. Being appointed one of the commissioners to arrange the terms of this armistice, General Pierce, though he had not slept an hour for two nights, and was

unable to mount his horse without assistance, immediately rode two miles and a half and joined the conference, where he remained till the articles were signed at four o'clock the next morning.

"General Pierce's next service was in connection with the battle of Molino del Rey, September 8th. His brigade was ordered into action by General Scott, who commended the zeal and rapidity of his movement. Though the battle had been decided before it reached the field, yet General Pierce brought his command under fire in such fine order as to win praise from the old officers. Here he was for some time engaged in the honourable service of covering the removal of the killed and wounded from the field. While so occupied, the 2d infantry—temporarily under the orders of General Pierce—became engaged with the enemy's skirmishers at the foot of Chapultepec. It was in these skirmishes that he exhibited the gallantry that called forth the encomiums of his brother officers, and excited the enthusiasm of the men."

Sinking, at length, beneath his injuries and the fatigue he had undergone, General Pierce was for thirty-six hours confined to his bed. During that time the battle of Chapultepec was fought and won by the American army. The storming of the city of Mexico was then contemplated. When told of this, General Pierce attempted to rise from his bed; but, seemingly acquiescing to the entreaties of his brother officers, he consented to remain quiet. Yet, in the night, he arose and reported himself to General Quitman, who was then under the guns of a formidable citadel within the city, and which was yet to be conquered. At that time there was none in the army who did not expect that an assault would be ordered at daylight. But Santa Anna had abandoned the city, and, during the next day, which was the 14th of September, the victorious Americans took possession of it.

Remaining in Mexico till the following December, General Pierce returned home, resigned his commission, and again took up the practice of the law. In the course of 1848, he was presented with a sword by the legislature of his native State, who thus signified their esteem for him as a gallant officer and patriotic citizen. Paying considerable attention to political affairs, he presently became quite influential as a politician; and in 1850, acted a distinguished part as the presiding officer of a convention called to revise the constitution of New Hampshire.

In January, 1852, the Democracy of his native State expressed their desire that he should be nominated as a candidate for the presidency. Though General Pierce intimated his earnest wish not to

leave the scenes of private life, the National Democratic Convention which met at Baltimore in the month of June then following, nominated him on the forty-ninth ballot, by a vote of two hundred and eighty to eleven, as the candidate of their party for the presidential chair. The canvass that ensued was a spirited and exciting one; but General Pierce was elected to the highest office in the gift of the American people, by a larger majority of electoral votes than had ever been received, except by Washington and Monroe.

Not long after his election to the highest office in the gift of the people, General Pierce met with a severe affliction. By an accident on a New England railroad, his only child—a boy of about eleven years of age—was killed. This was a striking illustration of the manner in which the proudest of human joys are often darkened by the shadow of death.

On the 4th of March, 1853, General Pierce was inaugurated president of the United States. His inaugural address was brief, but clear and decisive on all important questions, and characterized by a tone of conciliation and compromise. After acknowledging his indebtedness to the people for his elevation, the president referred to the rapid expansion of the territories of the United States, and to the discussions which it had produced both at home and abroad. "The policy of my administration," said President Pierce, "will not be controlled by any timid forbodings of evil from expansion. Indeed, it is not to be disguised that our attitude as a nation, and our position on the globe, render the acquisition of certain possessions not within our jurisdiction eminently important for our protection, if not in the future, essential for our preservation of the rights of commerce and the peace of the world. Should they be obtained, it will be through no grasping spirit, but with a view to obvious national interest and security, and in a manner entirely consistent with the strictest observance of national faith." In the opinion of the president, the United States had better not concern herself with the politics of Europe. "Our country," he said, "has spoken and will continue to speak, not only by its words but by its acts, the language of sympathy, encouragement, and hope, to those who desire rational liberty; but her policy ought to be pre-eminently peaceful, and with the neighbouring nations on this continent she should cultivate friendly relations. If we should open new channels of commerce with foreign nations, we shall require a prompt reciprocity." It was proper to add, that "the rights, security, and repose of this confederacy, reject the idea of interference or colonization on this side of the ocean by any foreign power beyond present jurisdiction

as utterly inadmissible." Not only are our national rights to be regarded, but those which pertain to every citizen in his individual capacity at home or abroad must be sacredly maintained. We must realize that upon every sea, and on every soil, where our enterprise may rightfully seek the protection of our flag, American citizenship is an inviolable panoply for the security of American rights.

In the administration of domestic affairs a devoted integrity of principle will be maintained, and the most rigid economy in every department of public service. As office can confer no prerogative and an importunate desire for it, no claim, considerations of public interest with reference to the duties performed can only influence the president in his selection of applicants. Special care will be taken that the federal government does not encroach upon the rights of the States. In thus preserving the just line of separation in the president's opinion is to be sought, the basis of future concord in regard to those questions which have the most seriously disturbed public tranquillity. The president believes that involuntary servitude as it exists in the United States is recognised by the constitution; that it stands like any other admitted right, and that the States where it exists are entitled to efficient remedies to enforce the constitutional provisions. He declares that to every theory of society or government calculated to disturb the bonds of law and affection between the States, he will oppose a ready and stern resistance. He holds the compromise measures of 1850 to be strictly constitutional, and that they ought to be respected and obeyed, not with a reluctance, the result of abstract opinions as to their propriety, but cheerfully, according to the decisions of the tribunal to which their exposition belongs.

The vice-president elect, William R. King, of Alabama, took the oath of office, but did not live to enter upon the performance of his duties.

On the 7th, President Pierce organized his cabinet as follows:— William L. Marcy, of New York, secretary of state; Robert McLelland, of Michigan, secretary of the interior; James Guthrie, of Kentucky, secretary of the treasury; Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, secretary of war; James C. Dobbin, of North Carolina, secretary of the navy; Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, attorney-general; and James Campbell, of Pennsylvania, postmaster-general. The members of the cabinet were selected to harmonize the various sections of the Democratic party.

On the 9th, Mr. Clayton, secretary of state under President Taylor, and, in conjunction with Sir Henry Bulwer, one of the negotia-

tors of the Treaty of Washington of April the 9th, 1850, rose to address the senate. He entered upon a vindication of the treaty between himself and Mr. Bulwer, by which it was mutually agreed to construe the stipulations of that instrument, as not affecting British territorial claims in the vicinity of the Bay of Honduras; he also contested the Monroe doctrine of excluding European powers from any further colonization on this continent, insisting that it had never received the sanction of the government. On the 14th, Mr. Mason replied to him, and the subject was subsequently discussed by various members of Congress until the 21st, when Mr. Everett reviewed the arguments on both sides, traced the history, and explained the importance of the Central American States, vindicated the action of the government in regard to them, and recommended peace and forbearance as the best policy, and the only means of attaining an increase of prosperity and power. The subject was then dropped.

The diplomatic corps at Washington paid their respects to President Pierce, and in a brief address tendered him their congratulations. Mr. Bodisco, the Russian minister, being the senior member, was appointed to express their sentiments. He declared their conviction that the prosperity of the United States, though largely due to the national energies, was mainly attributable to the continuance of peace, one of the most essential elements for the expansion of the productive capacities of any country. He concluded by saying, that the different governments whom he represented earnestly desired a continuance of the good understanding now so happily existing. The president after reciprocating these expressions of national amity, said that in the conduct of our relations with foreign governments he should of course, "look in the first instance to what the interests and honour of the United States might require, which necessarily included a strict observance of national engagements, and a faithful adherence to those sacred principles of justice which are the common law of Christendom."

In Mexico another political revolution was consummated, and Santa Anna is again president of the republic. The votes of the several departments were officially counted on the 17th of March, and showed eighteen for Santa Anna, and five for all others. Senor Escobar had been previously despatched by the authorities of Vera Cruz to invite his return. After two days' deliberation, Santa Anna told him that his heart could only be Mexican, that he did not wish that history should one day say that he had been deaf to the calls of his country; but that he had desired to end his days in the spot

which he had chosen for his family. Although history taught him to place no confidence in the passing enthusiasm of the masses, he was willing to return and give his countrymen a last proof of his patriotism. "Return," said he, "in the next packet, and in giving an account of your mission to those who sent you, tell them from me that in the next month of March I will leave this port for the shores of Mexico. On my arrival there I will call around me those persons of influence who are true lovers of their country. I will confer with them; and if I find co-operation, sincerity, and a willingness to reject capricious and mistaken opinions, if I find men of heart to make an obstinate defence of our rights against the aggressors from the north, and that the only cry is *independence* or *death;* then will I cheerfully lend myself to new sacrifices. In truth, I cannot survive the disappearance of the Mexican nationality, and I desire to bury myself in its ruins, if, after the Mexicans have done their duty, the Ruler of the destinies of the nations should order for us such a fate."

On the 13th of March, Governor Lane of New Mexico, upon his own official responsibility, and without orders from the cabinet at Washington, issued a proclamation taking possession of the Mesilla Valley, a tract of land one hundred and seventy-five miles long by thirty or forty broad on the frontiers of New Mexico. Under the provisions of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, this tract was claimed both by the United States and Mexico, but the joint boundary commission assigned it to Mexico. Governor Lane demanded the aid of the United States troops to carry his proclamation into effect; but it was refused.

Santa Anna was conveyed from Carthagena to Havana in an English steamer; from thence he sailed for Vera Cruz, which he reached on the 1st of April. On the 3d he was entertained by the authorities of Vera Cruz, on which occasion he offered the simple toast:—"Under the shadow of the Mexican flag, may there be but one cry, *independence* or *death.*" Santa Anna forthwith set out for the capital, being everywhere received with the utmost enthusiasm. He entered the city of Mexico on the 17th of April amidst the rejoicings of the populace. Upon the reception of the intelligence of the proceedings of Governor Lane in relation to the Mesilla Valley, a delegation of the authorities waited on Mr. Conklin the American minister, and presented an earnest protest against the whole proceeding.

On the 20th, Santa Anna was inaugurated president of the republic of Mexico. The oath was administered to him in the chamber

of deputies by which he swore to "defend the independence and integrity of the Mexican territory, and to promote the welfare and prosperity of the nation, in conformity with the basis adopted by the plan of Jalisco, and the agreement made in Mexico on the 6th of February last by the united forces."

On the 22d, Santa Anna issued a proclamation settling the basis of public administration as established provisionally, until the promulgation of a new organization. Decrees were subsequently issued imposing restrictions on the press, forbidding the circulation of foreign money, and ordering the remains of those who fell in the late American war to be disinterred, and buried in a manner worthy of those who had deserved well of their country. Arista, the late president, received orders to betake himself first to Vera Cruz and from thence to Europe in the next packet. As this order was backed by a troop of horse the ex-president obeyed.

On the 17th of May, a serious disturbance broke out in Vera Cruz in which three of the government troops and forty of the rebels were killed. The riot was speedily quelled, and several persons have been tried, convicted, and shot, for participating in the rebellion. The governors of the several States received orders to seek out all seditious persons who are in favour of annexation to the United States and to punish them as traitors.

On the 22d of July, the government of Santa Anna still continued to be popular, but appeared to be steadily tending toward arbitrary rule. Indications daily appeared of an alliance between church and state. The penalty of death had been established against all defrauders of the revenue.

Letters of recall having been addressed to Judge Conklin, the American minister at Mexico, in presenting them to Santa Anna he addressed him at some length on Mexican affairs. Judge Conklin said, "he knew that the suppression of the spirit of insubordination, so long prevalent in Mexico, was indispensable to the attainment of the ends at which she aimed. Santa Anna in the exercise of his momentous responsibilities had seen fit temporarily to resort to strong measures. But government, however severe, is better than anarchy. It was this conviction which had reconciled the people of France to the arbitrary rule recently established in that country." Santa Anna in reply said, "that the desire of the Mexican government was to establish order on the basis of respectful and prompt submission to the laws, without which the best political institutions are unavailing, and the well-being of any people utterly impossible." He acknowledged the friendly spirit in which the departing minister

had performed his duties, and expressed the warmest estimation for his character and abilities.

Mr. Gadsden, the newly appointed American minister at Mexico, presented his credentials to the president of the Mexican Republic on the 18th of August, and also a copy of the inaugural address of President Pierce, and renewed the assurances which it contained of the friendly feelings cherished toward Mexico by the United States. In reply, Santa Anna expressed his entire concurrence in the sentiments advanced, and his ardent desire that the friendly relations of the two republics might be preserved.

Commodore Perry, who had been sent out by the United States government to Japan in order to invite or compel the formation of a commercial treaty, arrived in the harbour about twenty-five miles from Jeddo, and cast anchor on the 8th of July. Hundreds of boats immediately gathered around his ships. A Japanese officer was admitted on board to an interview with one of the subordinate officers of the squadron, who informed him that no Japanese boats would be allowed within a certain distance from the vessels, and demanded that an officer of high rank should be sent on board to receive the president's letter to the emperor. Urgent objections were made to all these demands, but the American officer cut them short peremptorily by saying, that if the boats were not withdrawn they would be fired upon; and that, if proper officers were not sent to receive the letters, the vessels would go to the capital and the American commodore would deliver them himself. Inquiries were then made as to the contents of the letters, the number of men on board the ships, &c., all which questions were repelled as impertinent. The next day all the boats were withdrawn, and troops were observed mustering along the shore. After about a week's delay, it was announced that the emperor was willing to receive the letters.

On the 14th, the steamers proceeded to Jeddo, and, by appointment, the commodore and staff, escorted by about five hundred men armed to the teeth, went on shore, and had an interview with the commissioners appointed by the emperor to receive them. No less than twenty thousand Japanese troops were drawn up in line, and an immense concourse of people were present. The interview was friendly, and it was insinuated that the requests of the president of the United States in reference to trade would probably be granted. An answer was deferred until next spring, when the squadron was to return to receive it.

During the period of the congressional recess, the following events took place which are worthy of historical notice:—Spain evinced the

utmost anxiety about Cuba; Great Britain contested the right of the New England fishermen to catch fish within three miles of the coast of British America, and much ill-feeling between the two countries grew out of the seizure of American fishing-smacks; Martin Koszta, a citizen of the United States, having been seized by Austrian agents, claimed the protection of the American flag, and was forcibly rescued by Captain Ingraham from an Austrian brig-of-war. All these matters were brought before Congress at its next session.

Congress again met on the 5th of December. Senator Atcheson took his seat as presiding officer in the senate, and Hon. Linn Boyd, of Kentucky, was chosen speaker of the house of representatives. The president's message was submitted to Congress on the sixth, in substance as follows:—

In reference to our foreign relations the president said—

"For some years past, Great Britain has so construed the convention of 1818 in regard to the fisheries, as to exclude our citizens from some of the fishing-grounds, to which before that time they had freely resorted. The United States have never acquiesced in this construction, and a negotiation has been opened to remove all difficulties with a fair prospect of favourable results. Embarrassing questions have arisen between Great Britain and the United States in regard to Central America which our minister is instructed to negotiate upon. A commission is sitting in London to adjust the claims of citizens of each country against the government of the other.

"With France we still continue on the most friendly terms, some progress having been made in the formation of a new commercial treaty with that country.

"Since the last meeting of Congress no attempt has been made against the liberties of Cuba and Porto Rico by unauthorized expeditions organized within the United States. Should any such movement take place, all the means in the power of the president will be employed to suppress it."

The president declared that, after a careful investigation of the facts respecting the seizure of Koszta by Austrian agents, and his forcible liberation by Captain Ingraham, he has come to the conclusion that Koszta was illegally seized, wrongfully detained, and that he was clothed at the time of his seizure with the nationality of the United States. The conduct of Captain Ingraham is therefore fully approved by the American government which declines a

compliance with the demands of the emperor of Austria in relation to this case.

The commissioner to China has been instructed to avail himself of all occasions to open and extend our commercial relations not only with that people but also with the other Asiatic nations. Intelligence has been received of the arrival of Commodore Perry in Japan, but it has not yet been ascertained to what extent the emperor will be induced to abandon his restrictive policy, and open the ports of that populous country to American commerce.

With Mexico, a dispute has arisen as to the true boundary line between our territory of New Mexico and the Mexican State of Chihuahua. Negotiations are in progress for an amicable adjustment of all differences between the two governments. A minister was sent in July last to the States of Central America; as yet he has had time to visit Nicaragua alone, where he met a most friendly reception.

In regard to our domestic relations, we are at present exempt from any serious cause of disquietude. The controversies which have agitated the country are passing away with the causes which have produced them. The president referred to the compromise measures of 1830, as having restored a sense of repose and security to the public mind throughout the confederacy; which repose should not receive a shock during his administration if it was in his power to prevent it. The United States has been steadily expanding and acquiring new territories by proceedings universally allowed to be wise in policy and just in character. The president regards the proper sphere of action for the Federal government, as being in those things in which the States have a common interest in their relations to each other and to foreign governments, and recognises the effective democracy of the nation in the general reserved powers of the people of the several States. The revenue goes on from year to year increasing, beyond the prospective wants of the government. The president does not ask appropriations for works of internal improvement, because such appropriations have hitherto provoked constant strife, suspended the powers of local enterprise, and have proved totally inadequate to the accomplishment of the objects sought. The president thinks that the fact of the present policy having produced such deplorable effects, should suggest the inquiry whether a better plan of public proceeding might not be adopted. The president submits, whether it may not be safely anticipated, that if the policy were once settled against appropriations by the general government for local improvements, localities requiring such expendi-

tures would not by legitimate means raise the necessary funds for such constructions. He asks Congress deliberately to reconsider this question. In reference to the construction of a railroad to the Pacific, the president says, that the power to construct military roads as incidental to the general defence, cannot be denied to Congress, but that the peaceful policy and advancing prosperity of the country impose on us no immediate necessity for such preparations. All experience shows that whenever private enterprise will avail, government should let such matters alone. The connection of government with such a line of communication, even in the territories, should be incidental rather than primary. Surveys have, however, been undertaken to determine the most practicable and economical route from the Mississippi River to the Pacific. While the heavy expense, great delay, and difficulty in reaching the Pacific serve to exhibit strikingly the importance of such a work, neither these nor all other considerations combined can have the slightest appreciable value when weighed against the solemn obligation strictly to adhere to the constitution, and faithfully to execute the powers which it covers. The president appreciates the magnitude of the undertaking, and would willingly see the Atlantic and Pacific shores of this republic connected with each other by the common tie of a reciprocal interest, which should be productive of fealty and attachment to the Union; but no grandeur of enterprise, no inducements however urgent, promising popular favour, will ever lead him to depart from that path which experience has proved to be safe, and which is now radiant with the lights of prosperity and constitutional progress. The message concludes by announcing the death of Vice-President King on the 18th of April, 1853.

On the 8th of December, the death of Vice-President King was announced in the senate, and appropriate eulogies were pronounced by senators Hunter, Everett, Cass, Douglass, and Clayton. Bills were introduced providing for a railroad to the Pacific, but no action was taken on them. On the 13th, in the house, a resolution by Mr. Washburne of Illinois, declaring that the power to construct railroads through the territories of the United States is indispensable for the proper discharge of the duties imposed on Congress, to provide for the common defence and the general welfare, was laid on the table, by a vote of one hundred and eighteen to seventy-four; and a similar disposition was made of several other resolutions of the same character. On the 14th, a resolution directing the committee on commerce to report a bill for the completion of public works, for which appropriations were made by the last Congress,

was laid on the table by a vote of one hundred and two to seventy-five. On the 20th, a bill was reported by the naval committee, authorizing the construction of six first-class steam frigates, and appropriating three millions of dollars to that object. Mr. Dean, of New York, also offered a resolution to present a sword and the thanks of Congress to Captain Ingraham. The subject was referred to the committee of the whole.

In Mexico, all the political tendencies pointed to the restoration of the empire. A paper called the plan of Guadalaxara had been drawn up, formally placing Santa Anna at the head of the army, and permitting him to prolong the term originally fixed as the limit of the duration of the executive power to such an extent as he may adjudge to be necessary. This act was signed by over seventy prominent persons, and has received the assent of a great many of the departments, cities, and large towns. On the 1st and 2d of December it was agreed to by the civil and military authorities of Mexico. General Santa Anna, when officially informed of these proceedings, in a brief speech declared that the sacrifices which he had made for the country, ought to convince not only the capital but the entire nation, that his consecration to its service could not recognise any limits; that he should know how to respond to the mark of confidence with which he had been honoured. The financial and general condition of the country still continued deplorable. Three commissioners had been appointed to consider propositions made by the American minister for a settlement of the differences concerning the Mesilla Valley. On the 10th of December, General Santa Anna issued a decree, declaring that the power of the president should be prolonged at his own pleasure, that he should have a right to designate his successor, and that his official title should be "Most Serene Highness." A manifesto issued by him on the 17th, after rehearsing the circumstances which led him to return from exile, declares that he had again determined to retire from public life, when the voice of the nation demanded the enlargement of his powers and the prolongation of his official term. He accepted the powers conferred, simply because he believed them necessary to the good government and prosperity of Mexico.

The state of the financial department of the Mexican government ultimately changed the warlike policy of Santa Anna. He offered to yield the Mesilla Valley, and to cede in addition an immense region embracing part of Chihuahua and about one-third of Sonora, covering in all about thirty-nine millions of acres, for the sum of twenty millions of dollars; provided also that the United States

would prevent Indian incursions upon Mexican territories. This treaty was negotiated with General Gadsden, the American minister, and by him sent into the senate for confirmation.

In October, 1853, a company of about forty men left San Francisco, and on the 4th of November, landed at La Paz, in Lower California. After taking possession of the town, driving out the few Mexicans that opposed them, and making the Mexican governor prisoner, they went through the formality of declaring the country independent of Mexico, electing their leader, Captain Walker, president of the new republic. This invasion of their territory created a great deal of excitement in Mexico. On the 30th of November, Captain Walker published an address to the people of the United States, defending his proceedings. He alleged that Mexico had failed to afford proper protection to the people of the territory, that she had done nothing to develope its wealth or promote its prosperity, and that, having thus abandoned it herself, she could not justly complain if others should take it and make it valuable. On the 3d of December, Captain Walker issued a proclamation declaring Lower California free and independent of Mexico, abolishing all duties upon her exports and imports, and adopting the civil code of Louisiana as the code of the republic. On the 4th, the invaders were attacked by a large body of Mexicans, twelve or fourteen of their number were killed, and the remainder were closely besieged in a house which they had fortified. On the 20th of December, the *Anita* steamer arrived from San Francisco with two hundred and fifty recruits, to the great relief of President Walker, who issued another proclamation to the people of Lower California on the 24th, declaring that the object of the new government was to relieve them from the manifold evils which they had suffered under Mexican rule, and fully to protect life and property. He wished to repress crime, encourage industry, and ensure them the enjoyment of religious worship. Colonel Nequete, a Mexican officer, who had been driven out of California, however went to San Francisco, to oppose the fitting out of any more expeditions, and turned the tide of public feeling against the invasion.

In the United States senate, on the 4th of January, 1854, Mr. Douglas, from the committee on territories, reported a bill for the territorial government of Nebraska. One of its sections provides that whenever Nebraska shall be admitted into the Union as a State, it shall be with or without slavery, as its constitution at the time may prescribe; and another extends over the territory the provisions of the existing laws for the surrender of fugitive slaves. The presi-

dent, on the 18th, issued a proclamation having special reference to the invasion of the Mexican department of Lower California by Captain Walker.

In the house of representatives on the 11th of January, the resolution of thanks to Captain Ingraham was adopted by a vote of one hundred and seventy-four to nine. It tenders him the thanks of Congress, "for his judicious and gallant conduct on the 22d of July last, in extending the protection of the American government to Martin Koszta, by rescuing from forcible and illegal seizure and imprisonment on board the Austrian brig-of-war, Hussar."

On the 23d of January in the senate, Mr. Douglas, from the committee on territories, reported a substitute for the Nebraska bill introduced by him on the 4th. The new bill provides for the establishment of two territories, one to be called Nebraska, and the other Kansas, and extends over both the constitution and all the laws of the United States, except the 8th section of the act for the admission of Missouri into the Union passed in 1820, which section it declares to have been "superseded by the principles of the legislation of 1850, commonly called the compromise measures, and is consequently inoperative." Mr. Douglas said, that the object of the bill, as amended, was not to introduce or to exclude slavery, but remove whatever obstacles Congress had placed in the way of it, and to apply to the territories the doctrines of non-intervention. On the same day a discussion of some interest took place on a resolution offered by Senator Cass, calling on the president for copies of correspondence showing the official character and position of Archbishop Bedini, generally understood to be the pope's nuncio. His visit to some of the cities in the Western States had been productive of popular riots, it being alleged by those who originated these disturbances that he was connected with the execution of the distinguished champions of Italian independence during the revolution of 1848. Several of the senators spoke warmly in condemnation of all personal assaults upon a foreign visitor, and in vindication of the right of peaceable assemblages, and of the free expression of popular opinion. The president, a few days after, sent in a communication from the secretary of state, covering the correspondence called for. The pope, under date of March 31, 1853, certifies that Monseignor Bedini was the accredited nuncio of the apostolic see in Brazil, and that he was sent to the United States to express to the president, in the warmest language, the sentiments of respect entertained for him by the pope. The letter also entreats the president

to protect the Catholics in the United States with the shield of his authority and power.

On the 31st of January, Mr. Douglas spoke at some length in vindication of the principles of the Nebraska bill; and on the 3d of February, Mr. Chase, of Ohio, spoke in reply, insisting that the repeal of the compromise of 1820, would be a violation of the good faith by which the North and South had pledged themselves to abide by that act, as an adjustment of the controversy to which it put an end. On the 4th, Mr. Dixon, of Kentucky, spoke in defence of the bill, urging that Southern slaveholders ought to be permitted to emigrate to the new territory with their negro property, and that the Missouri act, the operation of which would be to prevent them, was unconstitutional. Mr. Douglas, on the 7th of February, moved another amendment on that reported on the 23d of January, which declares that the Missouri compromise act, being "inconsistent with the principles of non-intervention by Congress with slavery in the States and territories as recognised by the legislation of 1850, commonly called the compromise measures, is hereby declared inoperative and void, it being the true intent and meaning of this act, not to legislate slavery into any territory or State, nor to exclude it therefrom, but to leave the people thereof perfectly free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, subject only to the constitution of the United States." On the 8th, Mr. Everett, of Massachusetts, spoke in opposition to the bill. The condition of the territory over which this bill proposed to extend a government was now wild and barren; but it would before many years, become the seat of a large, enterprising, and industrious population. He thought the bill unjust to the Indians, and that government ought not to drive them from off the lands of their fathers without treating them with the utmost liberality. He objected to the repeal of the Missouri compromise, and denied that it was at all inconsistent with the compromise of 1850. He regretted the introduction of the bill, because it could do no good, and would renew the agitation and controversy on the subject of slavery. On the 14th, the amendment offered by Mr. Douglas, declaring the Missouri compromise to be inoperative and void, was adopted by a vote of thirty-five to nine. On the 20th of February, Mr. Pettit, of Indiana, spoke in support of the bill, urging the absolute and hopeless inferiority of the negro race, and the consequent necessity of keeping them in slavery, and advocating the repeal of the Missouri compromise as necessary to remove an odious and unjust restriction from the Southern States. Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, on the 21st, replied to the senator

from Indiana. He showed that the bill was a departure from the original policy of our fathers, who looked steadily forward to the time when slavery might be safely abolished, and who kept that end in view in all their legislation. He closed by declaring his faith in the ultimate universal triumph of justice and freedom. On the 27th, senator Cass spoke on the bill, asserting that all political sovereignty over the territories belonged to the people thereof and not to Congress, and denying that Southern slaveholders had the right to carry their slaves into the new territories. He declared his intention to vote for the bill, although he disliked many of its provisions. On the 3d of March, Mr. Bell, of Tennessee, made a speech in opposition to the bill. He considered it to be a clear violation of Indian treaties, and he was surprised that this feature of it had not excited more attention: the whole philanthropy of the senate had been engrossed by the African race; there had been no word of pity for any but them. Mr. Douglas replied, the vote was taken, and the bill passed by a vote of thirty-seven to fourteen.

On the 10th of March, Senator Gwin, from the select committee in the senate appointed to consider that subject, reported a bill providing for the construction of a railroad to the Pacific. Its main features are, that it gives every alternate section of land, within twenty miles on each side of the road, to companies who will contract to build it, and appropriates not less than six hundred dollars per annum, per mile, for carrying the mail daily. The road is to be commenced within three years, and to be completed within ten. The contractor must deposit two millions of dollars as security for the performance of his work, and forfeit one hundred thousand dollars for every month of delay in its completion. The company shall own the road for forty years, and then surrender it to the United States. Congress may buy it at any time, by paying the cost and twelve per cent. The location of the initial points and the route is to be fixed by the company contracting.

In the house of representatives, on the 21st of April, the bill for the organization of the territory of Nebraska, which the senate had passed on the 3d of March, was, on motion of Mr. Cutting, of New York, referred to the committee of the whole, in order that it might be fully debated before action should be taken on it. During the month of April, the treaty negotiated with Mexico by General Gadsden came before Congress, and underwent some very important alterations. The extent of territory offered for sale by Santa Anna, was reduced one-half, the portion purchased including the country through which it is intended that the great Pacific rail-

road should pass. The sum to be paid to Mexico is also reduced to from twenty to ten millions of dollars, and the eleventh article of the treaty of Guadalupe, by which the United States agreed to protect Mexico from the Indians, is abrogated.

On the 8th of May, the discussion of the Nebraska bill was again resumed in the house of representatives, and continued until the 12th, when Mr. Richardson, the chairman of the committee of the whole, by whom it had been reported, offered a resolution to terminate the debate on the bill the next day at noon. He said the Pacific railroad bill was a special order for the 16th, and it was desirable to dispose of this matter as speedily as possible. The opponents of the bill resisted taking a vote on this proposition, and the debate was again resumed. Various efforts were made to amend the obnoxious clauses in reference to slavery, and votes were taken on each amendment, but without success; and the bill was finally passed on the 22d, by a vote of one hundred and thirteen to one hundred.

The "Gadsden Treaty" with Mexico, as amended in the senate, was accepted by Santa Anna. The first article relating to the new boundary between the United States and Mexico is as follows:— "The Mexican Republic agrees to designate the following as her true limits with the United States for the future; retaining the same dividing line between the two Californias as already defined and established according to the 5th article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the limits between the two republics shall be as follows:—Beginning in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande, as provided in the 5th article in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo; thence, as defined in the said article, up the middle of that river to the point where the parallel of 31° 47′ north latitude crosses the same; thence due west one hundred miles; thence south to the parallel of 31° 20′ north latitude; thence along the said parallel of 31° 20′ to the 111th meridian of longitude west of Greenwich; thence in a straight line to a point on the Colorado river, twenty English miles below the junction of the Gila and Colorado rivers; thence up the middle of the said river Colorado, until it intersects the present line between the United States and Mexico." The United States are released from the obligation imposed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo to protect Mexico from Indian attack; and in consequence of this release and for the territory ceded by Mexico, they agree to pay the sum of ten millions of dollars, of which seven millions is to be paid on the ratification of the treaty, and the remainder as soon as the boundary line is established.

The invading expedition of Captain Walker was a complete failure. The inhabitants of the country refused to recognise his authority. The secretary of state, Mr. Frederick Emory, was arrested at San Diego on the 9th of March, by the officers of the United States ship Portsmouth, on that station; and Captain Watkins, who had returned to San Francisco, after having taken part in Captain Walker's expedition, was sentenced to pay a fine of fifteen hundred dollars.

On the 26th of April, a Mexican party of about ninety men made an attack on Walker's force at Guadalupe. After repeated skirmishes with this party, with losses on both sides, Walker reached the State line on the 7th of May, and surrendered himself and command to a detachment of the United States troops, by whom they were taken to San Francisco, to be tried for a violation of the neutrality laws of the United States.

In reference to the fisheries, a treaty was negotiated between the United States and Great Britain, providing for commercial reciprocity between America and the British provinces. It provides that the fisheries of the provinces, with the exception of those of Newfoundland, shall be open to American citizens; that disputes respecting citizens shall be settled by arbitration; that the British shall have a right to participate in the American fisheries as far as the 36th degree of north latitude; that there shall be free commerce between the provinces and the United States in flour, breadstuffs, fruits, fish, animals, lumber, and a variety of natural productions in their unmanufactured state. The St. Lawrence and the Canadian canals are to be thrown open to American vessels; and the American government is to urge upon the States to admit British vessels into their canals upon similar terms. The treaty is to be submitted to the provincial legislatures of the British provinces, as well as to the governments of the two countries.

The Japan expedition was attended with favourable results. The negotiations throughout were conducted in a friendly spirit. A treaty of amity, preparatory to a commercial treaty, has been negotiated. It contains the important stipulations that two ports on the Japanese islands shall be open to American vessels; that the steamers from California to China shall be furnished with supplies of coal; and that sailors shipwrecked on the Japanese shores shall receive hospitable treatment. A correspondent on board the United States steamship, Mississippi, thus writes under date of June 28, 1854:—

"The expedition is finished. What has it accomplished? Our

shipwrecked sailors will find aid on whatever point of the Japanese coast they may be cast; the harbours of Simoda, Hakostado, Napakiang, and another which we have a year to select, are opened to American ships; Japanese pilots take them safely to anchor at established prices; wood, water, provisions of all kinds, and coal in sufficient quantity, will be given for money or for goods, and Americans can travel to a distance of ten miles from each of the above cities. We have buried our dead according to Christian usages, and Buddhist priests have united their prayers with ours. Our railroad, telegraph, and other machines, have been put in practice upon Japanese soil, and the Imperial Council is now busy with a law permitting Americans to instruct Japanese in their operation. One of our transports is filled with rich presents, and letters full of devotion, are sent to the president in answer to his own. All this has been secured through the firmness and moderation of our commodore. He needs no praise."

Subsequent accounts of the conduct of the Japanese authorities after the visit of Commodore Perry would seem to indicate that the friendly spirit in which they conducted the negotiations, was in some measure owing to fearfulness of the consequences which would have followed a direct refusal. It appears that the American clipper-ship, Lady Pierce, arrived with her owner, Mr. Silas E. Burrows, in Jeddo Bay, fifteen days after Commodore Perry had left. Mr. Burrows describes his visit as having been attended with the most satisfactory and pleasurable results. The Lady Pierce was fitted up in San Francisco in a most costly manner for a "peace expedition," and floated in the waters of Jeddo Bay without any thing warlike about her appearance. The following extracts from the journal of her proprietor are worthy of notice:—

"The high Japanese officers said the visit was much more pleasing to them than that of Commodore Perry, who had with him 'too many big guns and fighting men.' The Japanese, however, expressed the utmost regard for the commodore and his officers.

"Large presents of silk, porcelain, lacquered ware, &c. were made in the name of the emperor to Mr. Burrows, who was requested to give publicity to his determination, that henceforward, in accordance with stipulations in the treaty, no foreign intercourse whatever would be permitted with Jeddo, but that all vessels must proceed either to Simoda or to the other ports thrown open to American trade.

"From Jeddo Bay, therefore, the Lady Pierce proceeded to Simoda under the pilotage of three men sent on board by the

authorities, and escorted by a government cutter, manned by two officers and twenty men, who had received orders to render every assistance that might be required. During the entire stay of the vessel no guard was placed over her, nor was any restriction put upon landing, of which Mr. Burrows twice took advantage while in Jeddo Bay, and on both occasions were received with every mark of courtesy. He is, however, of opinion, with the officers of the United States squadron, that no extensive foreign commerce can possibly, at least for many years to come, be carried on with Japan. He says he applied for coal, and was told at first that 'government had determined not to dispose of their sea-coal;' but, after reference to Jeddo, he was informed he might have as much as he required at $1.65 per picul, or $28 a ton—such coal as he saw at the depot being of a very inferior description to that sold in Oregon at $8 a ton."

Mr. Burrows says the Japanese are fully aware of the present disturbed state of China, which they impute entirely to the effects of foreign intercourse; and considers the enormous prices fixed upon such commodities as he desired to purchase, a certain index that fear alone dictated their emperor's acquiescence in the demand made by Commodore Perry.

Difficulties have arisen with the United States and Cuba. There is yet no probability of their immediate settlement, and it is possible that they may lead to results somewhat serious. A faithful record of the origin and present state of these difficulties is therefore desirable.

In the early spring of the present year, the American steamer, Black Warrior, touched at the port of Havana on her way from New Orleans to New York. The officers of the port noticed that she had cotton on board, although her manifest certified that she had no cargo; and declared the cargo confiscated on that account. The owners of the steamer urged that it had never been usual for the manifest to mention cargo not intended for Havana—that all vessels touching at that port had uniformly made up their statements in the same way, and that the Cuban officials had never before intimated any objection to it. Moreover, if there was an error in the manifest, they claimed the usual privilege of twelve hours to correct it. This was peremptorily refused, and the cargo declared confiscated. The captain of the steamer therefrom hauled down the United States flag, and surrendered the vessel to the Spanish government.

This transaction created a general feeling of indignation throughout the United States, and on the 1st of May, Senator Slidell intro-

duced a resolution authorizing the president to suspend the operation of the neutrality laws, so far as Spain is concerned, whenever in his judgment such a measure should be expedient. This resolution was referred to the committee on foreign relations.

On the 31st of May, President Pierce issued a proclamation, stating that information had been received that sundry persons in the United States were engaging in organizing and fitting out a military expedition for the invasion of Cuba. The honour of the national flag can only be legally vindicated by the general government, and all persons are warned that they will be punished if, unmindful of their own and their country's fame, they presume thus to disregard the laws of the land and to violate the faith of treaties. The officers of the United States and all good citizens are also exhorted to look out for persons so offending, and bring them to condign punishment.

On the 1st of August, a message was received from the president by the senate, stating that the formal demand for indemnity in the case of the Black Warrior, instead of having been satisfied, had led to a justification on the part of the Spanish government of the action of the Cuban authorities; and that therefore the responsibility of those acts were now tranferred to the Spanish government. Nothing had been done to remove past grounds of complaint, or to afford any security for justice and tranquillity in the future. The message was referred to the committee on foreign relations, which reported on the 3d, that they agreed in the opinion that full reparation for the past and adequate guarantees for the future can alone satisfy the public; and that they would not hesitate to recommend to the president the adoption of such provisional measures as would effectually insure the observance of our rights and the protection of our interests, but for the fact that only four months are to elapse before the next session of Congress. As the interval is so brief, the committee deem it advisable to leave the matter in the hands of the executive.

During this month, several treaties negotiated with foreign powers have been confirmed and accepted by Congress. The treaty negotiated with Japan by Commodore Perry has been ratified, as also the treaty negotiated at Washington by Lord Elgin, for establishing reciprocity of trade with the British provinces. A treaty has also been negotiated with Russia, and ratified by the senate, guaranteeing the neutrality of the United States in the present war, and recognising, as a doctrine of international law, the principle that free ships make free goods, and that the property of neutrals, unless contraband of war, shall be respected, even if found on board enemies' vessels.

The diplomatic correspondence in regard to the rights of neutrals between the United States and the European belligerents has been recently published. Under date of April 28th, 1854, Mr. Marcy, secretary of state, in a letter to the British ministry, acknowledges the receipt of the queen's declaration, that, during the present war, the principle will be recognised that free ships make free goods; and adds, the expression of the wish on the part of our government, that the principle might be unconditionally sanctioned by France and Great Britain, as such a step would cause it to be recognised throughout the civilized world as a principle of international law. Our government has always contended for its neutral rights, and has had them incorporated in several of its treaties with foreign powers. Mr. Marcy affirms that the United States, while claiming the full enjoyment of their rights as a neutral power during the present European war, will observe the strictest neutrality toward each of the belligerents. The laws already forbid the equipping of privateers, or the enlistment of troops within our territories against powers with whom we are at peace; and those laws will be strictly enforced.

WILLIAM R. KING.

William Rufus King was elected vice-president of the United States, upon the same ticket with Franklin Pierce. He was born in North Carolina. After receiving a thorough classical education, he studied law, and soon rose to eminence. He was representative in Congress from 1811 to 1816, and then secretary of legation to Russia. Removing to Alabama, he was elected a senator of the United States, and held that office from 1819 to 1845. He was then appointed minister plenipotentiary to France, which position he held until 1849, when he was again elected a senator in Congress. He was for many years president of the senate. In 1852 he was elected vice-president of the United States. But in the mean time the fatal hand of disease had been placed upon him, and he was forced to relinquish all official duties. Mr. King died at Selma, Alabama, on the 18th of April, 1853, aged sixty-six.

ROBERT McCLELLAND.

Robert McClelland, secretary of the interior in the cabinet of President Pierce, was born at New Castle, Franklin county, Pennsylvania. Graduating from Dickinson College, he was admitted to the bar in 1831. After practising two years in his native State, he removed to Monroe, in the then territory of Michigan, and there established himself in his profession. In 1835 he was a prominent member of the convention which framed the constitution of Michigan, preparatory to its admission as a State into the confederacy. Elected to the legislature, he there distinguished himself as a Democratic leader, and in 1843, was chosen speaker of the house. In 1843, and in the two following canvasses, he was elected to the house of representatives of the United States. Leaving Congress in 1849, Mr. McClelland, in 1851 and 1852, was elected by large majorities to the gubernatorial chair of Michigan. When General Pierce assumed the duties of president in 1853, he selected Governor McClelland to fill the post in his cabinet of secretary of the interior.

Mr. McClelland is a brilliant and powerful speaker, and a lawyer of reputation. Yet, however brilliant and effective, his oratory is not rendered so by flight of fancy or rhetorical flourishes; but by its sincerity, simplicity, and originality. As a private citizen, Mr. McClelland may be said to have no enemies, such is the uniform integrity, benevolence, and purity of his life and manners.

JAMES GUTHRIE.

James Guthrie, secretary of the treasury under President Pierce, was born in Nelson county, Kentucky, in the year 1793. Having finished his academical course at Bardstown, Mr. Guthrie, though quite a young man, commenced life as a trader on the Mississippi, but he found this business a toilsome and perilous one, and very slightly remunerative, and therefore relinquished it for the study of the law, which he had once previously begun. In 1820 he established himself in the profession he had chosen in Louisville, where he soon became known as a lawyer of the most solid attainments and strictest conscientiousness. In a few years he acquired by his practice alone,

sufficient means to form the foundation of his present large fortune.

Though never neglectful of the duties of his profession, Mr. Guthrie entered warmly into the political contests which agitated his native State, for some six or eight years subsequent to 1821. In his political course, he does not seem to have been led on by ambitious motives. Though frequently solicited to become a candidate for the chief executive office of the State and for a seat in Congress, he has invariably declined the invitation, accepting only the comparatively humble post of a member of the Kentucky legislature from the county of Jefferson, which he has been frequently called upon to represent. His political principles for the past twenty years have been thoroughly Democratic.

As a speaker, Mr. Guthrie is straightforward and earnest, seeking rather to overpower by an impassioned utterance of the truth, than to captivate his hearers by a glittering display of rhetorical ornaments. With an iron will, he possesses a benevolent disposition; as a husband and father he is most affectionate and devoted; in the social circle, he is affable and easy of access; and, as his colloquial powers are fine, his company is always desirable.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

Jefferson Davis, secretary of war in the cabinet of President Pierce, is a native of Kentucky. While he was yet an infant his family removed to the Mississippi Territory, where he received an academic education. Entering Transylvania College, in Kentucky, he studied there till appointed as a West Point cadet in 1824. After graduating in 1828, he served several years as an infantry and staff officer. Promoted in 1833 to a lieutenancy in the dragoons, he served with distinction through the celebrated contest with the Indians, most commonly known as "Black Hawk's War." During the two subsequent years he was engaged on the Western frontiers, and accompanied the first expedition that compelled the Pawnees and Camanches to beg for peace on any terms.

Resigning his commission in 1835, Mr. Davis retired to the privacy of an agricultural life in Mississippi. Ten years afterward he was elected to Congress. After a few months of congressional service he resigned his seat in July, 1846, and joined the famous first regi-

ment of Mississippi volunteers, of which he had been chosen colonel. In the battles of Monterey and Buena Vista, he took a distinguished part, winning for himself a deathless reputation as a brave and accomplished officer. When the term for which his regiment enlisted had expired it was ordered home. Returning with his now handful of war-worn troops, Colonel Davis was met at New Orleans by a commission from President Polk as brigadier-general; but this he refused to accept, on the ground that the authority to make such commissions did not rightly belong to the president, having been usurped from the States by Congress, and then vested by them in the chief executive.

Shortly subsequent to his return home, Colonel Davis was appointed to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate. His term having expired, he was unanimously elected by the legislature to fill the same important station for the ensuing six years. In September, 1851, only a few weeks before the election day, he resigned his seat in the senate, to accept a call of the State-Rights Democracy of Mississippi to fill the gubernatorial candidacy rendered vacant by the withdrawal of General Quitman. He was defeated, however, by less than a thousand votes. From the quiet of his plantation, to which he then retired, President Pierce called him in 1853, to execute the responsible duties of secretary of war.

Colonel Davis is a clear-headed, strong-minded, common sense man. As an orator he is earnest and fluent, yet always concise. His manners are frank and courteous. In stature, he is of middle height, slender and erect, and of a dignified and military carriage.

JAMES C. DOBBIN.

The secretary of the navy under General Pierce—James C. Dobbin—was born in 1814, at Fayetteville, North Carolina. Having rapidly acquired a rudimentary education, he entered the university of North Carolina at the age of fourteen, and in 1822 graduated with the highest honours. Immediately commencing the study of the law, he finished his course, and was admitted to practice at the bar in 1835, just as he had turned his twenty-first year. In 1845, after many refusals to become a candidate to represent his native county in the State legislature, he finally accepted the nomination of the Democratic party to run for a seat in Congress. He was elected. In Congress he distinguished himself for his activity, his

honourable fairness, and as an orator of rare merit. In the summer of 1848, Mr. Dobbin, at the earnest solicitation of his friends, became a candidate for the lower house of the North Carolina legislature, and was elected. Here he rendered himself conspicuous by his touchingly beautiful and nobly successful speech in favour of a bill for the relief of the insane, introduced in consequence of a memorial from Miss Dix. In 1852, he was a prominent member of the convention by which General Pierce was nominated for the presidency, and it is said that his "eloquence swept the flood" which led to that nomination. Upon the inauguration of President Pierce he received an appointment to the responsible station of secretary of the navy.

In private life, Mr. Dobbin has no enemies. All who know him regard him with esteem and affection. Of an unobtrusive and retiring disposition, he is eminently a domestic man, yet still a pleasant addition to the social circle. His countenance is strongly marked, and indicative of great penetration and shrewdness, with an intellect of the most commanding character. He is yet a young man, but one of the most promising of which our country can boast.

CALEB CUSHING.

Caleb Cushing, attorney-general of the United States under President Pierce, was born in January, 1800, at Salisbury, in Essex county, Massachusetts. Graduating from Harvard College in his eighteenth year, he commenced the study of law at Cambridge. For two years, while engaged in his legal studies, he held the place of tutor of mathematics and natural philosophy in the college from which he had graduated. He then commenced the practice of his profession at Newburyport, speedily acquiring reputation and a lucrative business. In 1825 he was elected to represent the town of Newburyport in the lower branch of the Massachusetts legislature. In the following year he was sent to the State senate. For several years subsequent, he continued in the practice of his profession, and occasionally engaging in literary pursuits. In 1835 he acquired no little reputation as the author of a "Historical and Political Review of the Revolution in France." In 1833 and 1834 he was again elected to the legislature. Elected to the Congress of the United States in 1835, he continued to be chosen as a representative in that body for four successive terms. In 1843 he was nominated to a seat

in the cabinet of President Tyler. But the senate having refused to confirm this nomination, the president secured his appointment as commissioner to China, where, in 1844, he negotiated a treaty, which, for the first time established diplomatic relations between the United States and the empire of the "Celestials."

Soon after his return home in 1846, Mr. Cushing was again elected to the legislature of his native State. In the mean time war had broken out with Mexico. The majority in the legislature of Massachusetts having refused to appropriate twenty thousand dollars to equip the State volunteers, Mr. Cushing advanced the money from his own means, and in the spring of 1847, accompanied the regiment as colonel to the Rio Grande. Being soon after appointed a brigadier in the United States service, he was presently attached to the forces under Scott, but had not the fortune to participate in any important battle.

Returning home, General Cushing was nominated by the Massachusetts Democracy as their candidate for governor. He failed, however, in securing a majority of the popular vote. In 1850 he was chosen for the fifth time to represent the town of Newburyport in the legislature; and in 1852, he was appointed one of the justices of the supreme court of Massachusetts. In the following year, he was selected by the newly-inaugurated president, General Pierce, to fill the important station in the cabinet of attorney-general for the United States.

As a debater, General Cushing stands high. He possesses great energy and vigour both of mind and body. His attainments are as various as they are extensive. With the farmer, he can converse freely upon farming matters; with the soldier he is equally at home; and as a lawyer, legislator, and diplomatist, his abilities are deservedly regarded as eminent.

JAMES CAMPBELL.

James Campbell, postmaster-general in the cabinet of President Pierce, was born in the District of Southwark, in Philadelphia, in the year 1813. His father—a native of Ireland—by the exercise of industry and thrift, was enabled to give him a thorough education. Resolved upon success, he became a student of law, was admitted to the bar, and by a prompt, energetic, persevering, and

intelligent course of action, soon rose to distinction in his profession. At the age of twenty-nine, he was appointed judge of the court of common pleas for the city and county of Philadelphia. Judge Campbell having faithfully and satisfactorily discharged the various and exacting duties of this station for nine years, the judiciary, at the end of that period, in 1850, was made elective by the people. In 1852, Governor Bigler appointed him attorney-general of Pennsylvania. During the presidential campaign of that year, he supported General Pierce, who was successful. When on the 4th of March, 1853, President Pierce formed his cabinet, he offered Judge Campbell the position of postmaster-general, which he accepted, and continues to fill to the satisfaction of the chief magistrate.

Judge Campbell is in all respects a self-made man. He is the youngest member of the cabinet, having fought his way to this high position by the age of thirty-five years. As a private citizen, his character is unexceptionable.

Lives of the Chief Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States.

JOHN JAY.

John Jay was born in the city of New York, December 1, 1745, Old Style. After receiving the elements of education at a boarding-school, and under private tuition, he was placed, when fourteen years of age, at King's (now Columbia) College, in his native place. Here he devoted himself principally to those branches which he deemed most important in reference to the profession of the law, upon the study of which he entered after receiving his bachelor's degree.

In 1768, he was admitted to the bar; and in 1774, was chosen a delegate to the first American Congress, which met at Philadelphia, and was placed on a committee with Mr. Lee and Mr. Livingston, to draft an address to the people of Great Britain. It was prepared by Mr. Jay, and is one of the most eloquent productions of the time. In the two following years he was re-elected, and served on various important committees. In 1776, he was chosen president of Congress. In 1777, he was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of New York; and the first draft of that instrument proceeded from his pen. The following year, when the government of New York was organized, he was appointed Chief Justice of that State. In 1779, we find him again a member of Congress, and in the chair of that body. From this, however, he was removed in the same year by his appointment as minister plenipotentiary to Spain.

The objects of Mr. Jay's mission were to obtain from Spain an acknowledgment of our independence, to form a treaty of alliance, and to procure pecuniary aid. With regard to the first two points, no satisfactory conclusion was obtained; and in the summer of 1782 Mr. Jay was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate a peace with England, at the same time that he was authorized to continue the negotiation with Spain. In conjunction with Mr. Adams and Dr. Franklin, he resolved to disobey the instructions of Congress, to follow in all things the advice of the French minister,

Count de Vergennes, who was embarrassing the negotiation with England, in order to benefit France at the expense of the United States; and, accordingly, they signed a treaty with the British minister, without his knowledge.

The definitive treaty having been signed in September, 1783, he soon afterward resigned his commission as minister to Spain, and, in May, 1784, embarked for the United States. He was then placed at the head of the department for foreign affairs, in which office he continued until the adoption of the present constitution, when he was appointed Chief Justice of the United States. In 1787, he received a severe wound in the forehead from a stone, when acting as one of a volunteer corps to preserve the peace of the city at the time of the Doctors' mob. He was, in consequence, confined to his bed for some time, a circumstance which obliged him to discontinue writing for the Federalist, to which he had already contributed the second, third, fourth, and fifth numbers. The only other number in the volume from his pen is the sixty-fourth, on the treaty-making power.

In 1784, Mr. Jay was sent as envoy extraordinary to Great Britain, and concluded the treaty which has been called after his name. Before his return, in 1795, he had been elected governor of his native state—a post which he occupied until 1801. In that year, he declined a re-election, as well as a reappointment to the office of Chief Justice of the United States, and retired to private life. The remainder of his days was passed in devotion to study, particularly theological, and to practical benevolence. He died May 17, 1829, universally honoured and beloved.

Mr. Jay was a man of inflexible firmness of mind in the performance of duty, of great discernment, extensive information, and fine talents as a writer. Although rather cautious with strangers, with friends he was affable and frank; economical in his expenses, he was at the same time generous toward every object worthy of his bounty. The letters between him and General Washington—various extracts of which are contained in the fifth volume of Marshall's History—exhibit the elevated place he held in the confidence and esteem of that illustrious man.

JOHN RUTLEDGE.*

At a late session of Congress, it was, on motion of Mr. Westcott, that the Senate of the United States directed the Committee on the Judiciary to report a bill for a bust of Mr. John Rutledge, of South Carolina. On the 17th of July, 1846, a bill was accordingly reported for this purpose from that committee. It passed to a second reading, but was not again recurred to during the session, and now remains in abeyance, to be called up at some future opportunity. The more exciting and absorbing character of the events now in progress—foreign war, and the conflicts of rival parties—naturally contributed still further to delay the tribute of a tardy propriety and justice.

This resolution of the Senate necessarily provokes an inquiry into the claims of the individual thus honourably distinguished among his contemporaries. Millions have sprung into existence since the services of John Rutledge, in the Revolution, won for him the admiration of his associates, who have scarcely heard his name. The American people have hitherto shown themselves strangely remiss in preserving memorials of their great men. Their history has been one of *performances* rather than *memorials*. They have been *preparing* history rather than *recording* it; and what is true of the nation, is still more appropriately applied to the people of the Southern States. It is their peculiar fortune to be agricultural in their pursuits; and agriculture is seldom known to leave its monuments. The sparseness of population in agricultural countries, and the unexciting nature of their occupations, preclude that lively attrition of mind with mind which, in commercial communities, provokes a continual impatience of the staid, and, by exciting a perpetual restlessness of mood, leads naturally to the development of all the resources of society. In this way reputations are fixed; memorials raised and preserved with care; proofs are sought for wherever they may be found, and the becoming tribute to past worth is honourably offered by that veneration which, in the enjoyment of present benefits, is not forgetful of the obligations due to ancient benefactors. The South has not shown their proper degree of veneration. Its gratitude has not declared itself in trophies to the past. A tardy

* This sketch of the life and public services of Judge Rutledge, copied from the American Review, is attributed to Dr. Sims.

zeal, in recent periods, has done little more than discover how irremediable is this neglect and indifference, since it shows us how inadequately we should now offer to perform those duties which we never thought to attempt at the proper season. The documents necessary to our memorials now escape our search. The proofs of our performances daily elude our grasp and inquiry. The records of private families are now unfrequently to be procured, and the papers and correspondence of the fathers of the Revolution have been profligately consigned to waste and ruin by the ungrateful improvidence of children, who have but too imperfectly realized, in their thoughts, the wondrous value of their inheritance. The statesmen of the South—a region which has always been numerously prolific of this class of public benefactors—have, with few exceptions, been suffered to die almost entirely out of the public mind; to be obscured by the names of others, in other sections, the painstaking and solicitude of whose descendants have been the chief sources of their distinctions; and have thus temporarily incurred a forfeiture of those rights, or, at least, of that place in the national regard and history, which none might more confidently assert and assume than themselves. The South produces but few authors, in the ordinary sense of the word. Their intellectual men are politicians, statesmen, and lawyers. They do not live in the past, but in the present. They do not work for the future, but the day. Their business is not so much to do justice to those who transmitted the torch to their hands, as to hurry with it onward to the hands of others. Their thoughts are spoken in the assembly, and along the thoroughfares—seldom through the medium of the press; they *speak* rather than *write*, and, in due degree as they attain freedom, grace, and power in oratory, is their reluctance to undergo the laborious manipulations of authorship. Hence it is that, when the sounds of their voices subside from the ears of their auditors, there remains no record by which to save them for the justice and the judgments of the future. The manufacture of their histories, their biographies, their books generally, is yielded almost wholly to their brethren of the North; and these naturally incline to choose for their subjects the great events and the great men in their own more immediate precincts. Hence it is that a great wrong is wrought, without being designed, to a portion of our historical character, and to many of the master memories of the nation. The South has no reason to be ashamed of the place which she has held in the performances of the country, whether as states or colonies. Virginia and South Carolina, like Massachusetts, were the noble nursing-mothers of a great

family of republics. They always possessed that individuality of character which is sometimes unwisely censured under the name of sectionality; as if this very sectionality did not constitute those individualizing characteristics of a people, by which alone their nationality could be determined. Their sons have written their names with pride upon every page of our progress. It is not altogether too late to make their memorials; and though these must still necessarily be very imperfect, something may yet be done toward acknowledging, by proper tributes, the great debt of gratitude and affection which we owe to those sires of states, who, by bold eloquence, counselling bold deeds, achieved the precious possession of liberty and country in which it is our pleasure daily to exult.

The Senate of the United States deserve the thanks of the nation for thus recalling to its memory the name of John Rutledge. Mr. Rutledge was the Patrick Henry of South Carolina, and a statesman, orator, and patriot, quite worthy to take rank, not only with the great Virginian—to whom he has been frequently compared—but with any of the statesmen which the American Revolution produced. Henry himself acknowledged, with the generous ardour of a noble spirit, the claims of this distinguished Carolinian. He declared that, in the first Congress of the nation, John Rutledge "shone with superior lustre." When asked, on his return to Virginia, after that first convention, what was the degree of talent, and what was the sort of persons composing that illustrious body, and, in particular, whom he thought its greatest man, he answered: "If you speak of *eloquence*, John Rutledge, of South Carolina, is the greatest orator." Such a tribute, alone, from such a source, would suffice to justify us in demanding all that can now be delivered of the career of its subject; but when, in addition to this reputation, we are told that his patriotism, resolve, high character, and sagacious judgment were conspicuous in maintaining the tone and spirit of the Southern States during the Revolution, in keeping up the courage of Georgia and the Carolinas, and in directing and counselling their performances, we feel that his history is necessary to that of the country, and must contribute to that national stock of character, the value of which must necessarily increase with every year in our progress to maturity. We propose, in this paper, to contribute, in some small degree, to repair our deficiencies, to revive what we can of the past in the career of Mr. Rutledge, and to make eligible to popular readers what remains to us of his achievements. This, now, can only imperfectly be done. The private records are wanting. There are no family memorials, or very few. The voluminous cor-

respondence of Mr. Rutledge, as President of the Colony of South Carolina, Governor of the State, its Representative in Congress, and Chief Justice of the United States, seems now to be irrecoverable; and but a few letters remain to us, which are yet unpublished,* and from which, where they serve to illustrate the progress and character of public events, or to indicate the mind and temper of the writer, we propose to detach for our narrative.

The father of John Rutledge came from Ireland. He reached Carolina, with a brother, Andrew, somewhere about the year 1735. Here he commenced the practice of medicine, and soon after married a Miss Hexe, who, at the early age of fifteen, gave birth to the subject of our sketch. He was born in 1739. His father died not long after, and the domestic training was thus left entirely to the young mother, who did not lack in the necessary endowments for this difficult duty. Devoting herself to her offspring, she left him but little reason to feel or to regret the paternal loss, of which he was comparatively unconscious. His early education was confided to David Rhind, an excellent classical scholar, and, in his day, one of the most eminent and successful teachers of youth in the Carolinas. The progress of John Rutledge was highly satisfactory. He was soon possessed of the degree of classical knowledge which was supposed to be requisite for the career designed him, and what was wanting to the finish of his education in Charleston, was derived from his transfer to superior institutions in England. The preparatory studies over, he was entered a student of the Temple in London, and proceeding barrister, came out to Charleston, where, in 1761, he commenced the practice of the law.

He was soon to fix the attention of the public in his profession. This is one, in which, ordinarily, it requires some considerable time before the professor can work his way into public confidence and business. Mr. Rutledge was subjected to no such delay. His mind, at once ready and exact, was equally solid and precocious. His great general abilities, particularly the ease, freedom, strength, and directness of his eloquence, were especially calculated to fix and charm the regards of an eager and enthusiastic people. His first case at the bar was one of peculiar interest. The subject was one of uncommon infrequency in the South. It was one of all others most likely to excite attention and feeling among a proud and sensitive people. It was an action sounding in damages, for a breach

* From the private collection of the late General Peter Horry, now in the possession of Dr. R. W. Gibbes, of South Carolina, and from the papers of the Laurens family.

of promise. The Southern people do not tolerate such actions. A Southern lady would be ashamed of being a party to them. Her philosophy and theirs would teach them to rejoice rather than regret in the escape from any connection with the treacherous. The case was one, therefore, which afforded to our young lawyer an admirable occasion for the display of his abilities. He did not suffer it to escape him; and the tradition was carefully treasured up by his admirers, that he equally charmed and confounded by his eloquence.

The event was not without its fruits. The ice once broken, an extensive field of usefulness and power soon opened upon the eyes of our youthful orator. His was no tedious probation; he rose in his profession at a bound. He had shown himself equal at once to the boldest flights of passion and fancy, and to the strictest and severest processes of ratiocination. His reason and his impulse wrought happily together. His enthusiasm was never suffered to cripple his induction, nor the severity of his analysis to stifle the ardour of his utterance. A happy combination of all the essentials of the lawyer and the orator was soon acknowledged to be in his possession, and business grew rapidly upon his hands. The difficulty and importance of the cases brought before him, declared the public persuasion of his sagacity. The liberal fees by which his services were retained announced his singular successes. It became customary to think that his clients were necessarily to be successful, and, no doubt, a foregone conclusion of this sort did much toward the further conviction of judge and jury. Such a conviction could not readily have been reached until repeated triumphs had impressed upon the popular mind the most perfect assurance of his powers. It was highly fortunate for himself and the country that such were his successes, and so rapidly acquired, since but few years were allowed him for the acquisition of his private fortunes, when the growing discontents and difficulties of the country demanded his services for the public cause. The first faint throes were now about to take place whose final but remote issue was revolution; the sundering of one mighty empire, and the birth of another, destined, with God's blessing, to be still more mighty. John Rutledge was one of the chosen men in our Israel, whose hands were to assist from the beginning in bringing into existence this grand conception.

The beginning of the Revolution may, in all the States, be traced much farther back than it is common for our popular historians to pursue the clues. We are of opinion, that, in spite of all disclaimers, many of the great men of America conceived the independence of the country even before the year 1760; but the question shall

not arrest us now. In 1764, Governor Boone, of South Carolina, refused to administer to Christopher Gadsden the oaths which all persons were required to take who were returned to the Commons House of Assembly. This was, in other words, to deny him the seat, since the performance of the legislative functions depended upon a compliance with the laws in relation to the preliminary oaths. The asserted ineligibility of Gadsden was in consequence of the freedom of his opinions, and the supposed licentiousness of his wishes in regard to the colonial rights and privileges. He, too, was one of the remarkable men of that day in the South—a man of sterling integrity and singular sagacity, and one of the first to scent tyranny from afar, and to prepare the popular mind to loathe and to resist it. It became necessary, accordingly, to disfranchise him, and to visit the sins of his opinion with the frowns of the royal representative. But the step taken for this purpose was one of the most unlucky for its object. The House of Assembly kindled with indignation at this assault upon their constitutional privileges. They claimed to be the only, sole, and proper judges of the qualifications of their members, and resented in proper language, and with a becoming spirit, the usurpations of the royal governor. It was in arousing this spirit, as well among the people as in the assembly, that John Rutledge first distinguished himself in his political career. He urged upon both people and assembly to resist promptly and with a determined hostility every interference of the royal agent with their rights and privileges. These were the sacred proofs, and the only sure essentials of their safety, and not to be surrendered but at the last peril of life and fortune. He kindled the flame on this occasion, and soon had the satisfaction to see it burning brightly and triumphantly on the altars of public liberty.

Scarcely was this domestic controversy at an end, and while the feeling which it had provoked was still lively at work in every bosom, when the passage of the ever-memorable *Stamp Act* opened the way to another of like character, but of more general application, and of more imposing and permanent results. This measure led to the first social and political organization among the colonies, and to their first distinct connection for a common purpose. Hitherto their existence had been purely and singularly individual. They were so many severalities, without any common bond, though sitting side by side on the same continent. Their affinities, prior to this event, appear to have been very few. Almost entirely officered from the mother country, the intercourse between their public men was exceedingly slight—confined to official matters wholly, and only

in relation to such business as resulted from their momentary exigencies. It was not the policy of Great Britain that they should become more intimate, since that intimacy must necessarily have taught them, better than any thing else, the secret of their own strength. The old French war had something to do with the Revolution, which it did not promise. It was in the final overthrow of French power in America that the colonists first arrived at some knowledge of their own. With the continued pressure of a foreign enemy upon their coasts and borders, the colonists would still have looked to Great Britain for support and sympathy, and their dependence might have continued for half a century longer; but this danger withdrawn, they had an opportunity not only to grow and to increase, but to reflect upon the fact, which failed to impress them in the hour of their danger, that it was their own men and money mostly by which their deliverance had been achieved. Great Britain had simply officered their troops from among her favourites, and levied their resources by which to sustain them, while she continued to monopolize their trade, tax their gains, and abridge their commercial successes. They ripened rapidly for independence from the peace with the French and Spaniards of 1763. From that moment began the Revolution, and the wretched agency of the Stamp Act gave a fatal blow to all the *morale* of British ascendency on our continent. That ascendency once discovered to be purely and arrogantly selfish, the next natural question was, whether it might be dispensed with.

South Carolina was one of the first of the colonies to declare herself in regard to this offensive measure. The proposition of Massachusetts to the provincial assemblies, to send committees from their bodies to a common congress, with regard to their united working in the common cause, was a suggestion that might well startle communities whose local authorities—by no means in harmony with the people—had, for some time before, been busy in the inculcation in the royal mind of suspicions and jealousies in regard to the popular passion in America for independence. An act of union, no matter how innocent the obvious purpose, was one to increase and confirm those suspicions. It was one, accordingly, for which the mind of the country was but partially prepared. The proposition of Massachusetts met with great opposition. It was discussed anxiously in all quarters, and nowhere with more warmth and uneasiness than in South Carolina. That colony had been, in a very large degree, the pet and favourite of the British government. It had been largely patronized by the crown, supplied with men and money in its emer-

gencies, and there was no rivalry in trade, commerce, or manufactures between the parties, such as existed between the people of England and Massachusetts, which could justify or account for the activity of the Carolinians in any overthrow of the royal authority. But they had their wrongs also, which they resented deeply, though these differed in a large degree from those of which the Northern colonies complained; and the sympathies of the leading men of Carolina, particularly such as had been educated in Great Britain, were mostly with the cause of Massachusetts. A passionate love of liberty in their bosoms proved superior to any considerations of mere security and profit. John Rutledge at once threw himself into the conflict of opinion among his people, and contended with all the might of his eloquence against their doubts, their fears, and that prescriptive loyalty which a blind veneration alone could cherish in spite of an obvious necessity. He conciliated the prejudices, disarmed the apprehensions, answered the doubts, strengthened the hopes, and fortified the courage at once of the people and the assembly. The popular mind expanded instantly beneath his earnestness, cogency, and vehemence, to a due appreciation of the policy and importance of the proposed congress; and the result was, that the vote for sending deputies to the Continental Congress was carried in South Carolina the first of all the colonies south of New England. This was truly a great triumph in the case of a province settled originally and chiefly by the Cavaliers, and which for so long a time had enjoyed the peculiar smiles and the protection of the crown. Mr. Rutledge was one of the three delegates chosen to represent her in the first congress of the nation; the other two were Christopher Gadsden and Thomas Lynch. Of these, Mr. Rutledge was the youngest—but twenty-five years old—with his feet still lingering on the happy threshold of youth, but lifted freely and boldly to step forth and advance in the arduous walks of manhood. This appointment took place in 1765, immediately after the receipt of the news of the passage of the Stamp Act. The congress met first in New York, a memorable meeting and a most remarkable body—remarkable at once for strength of character and various ability. It was with something of a sensation that the delegates from the northern colonies listened to the eloquence of Mr. Rutledge—eloquence which, with much of the impetuous force and fulness of Demosthenes, combined the polished graces and freedom of the Roman Tully. Their knowledge of the remote colony of the South had not prepared them for such a powerful exhibition. In those days the means of education in South Carolina were exceedingly few and inferior. The

sister provinces knew her chiefly by her merely physical productions —by rice, and indigo, and silk, and possibly tar and turpentine. We have already instanced the small amount of social intercourse existing between the colonies. They regarded South Carolina as a region chiefly of slaves and slaveholders—the former in overwhelming disproportion to the latter, and these distinguished rather by a voluptuous and haughty languor and self-indulgence than by any of the higher aims of the imagination or the intellect. They expected neither wit nor wisdom from such a quarter; and the appearance of Mr. Rutledge among them in debate was a surprise calculated greatly to disturb all their previous conceptions of the colony from which he came. They had not taken into allowance the custom of the more wealthy in the colony, by which their sons were mostly educated in Europe. It is very likely that they knew nothing of this fact, though many of the South Carolinians who subsequently became leaders in the struggle which ensued were graduates of English universities.

Of the impression made upon Congress by Mr. Rutledge, the opinion so handsomely expressed by Patrick Henry will afford us some idea. Henry was an admirable judge, not less than a generous rival. His estimate was confirmed by that of others, who, in their own large endowments, had a right to speak. The style of Mr. Rutledge, as a debater, was vehement and impetuous, but clear, direct, and manly. His foresight and boldness were the secrets of the force; his admirable common sense and order were the effective agents in the transmission of his ideas; while his passionate emphasis, and earnest but graceful manner, struck with timely application upon the sensibilities, and carried his convictions, with irresistible effect, into the souls of his audience. The dignity, courage, candour, and noble character of Gadsden; the gentlemanly demeanour, polish, and good sense of Lynch; with the eloquence of Rutledge, did more for the reputation of South Carolina, at the incipient assemblage of the States, than had been done during her whole previous history by the spirit of her warfare and conduct against the Indians, French, and Spaniards, and by all the value of her exports in rice and indigo. It was a lesson to herself, not less than to her neighbours, and she will not be the first of the Confederacy to forget how much nobler and more essential to national character are mind and virtue, than all other mortal possessions.

The history of that Congress, and the fruits of its session, are everywhere on record. The repeal of the Stamp Act necessarily diminished the active participation of the colonists in political affairs,

and Rutledge returned to his native state and to his profession—mingling no farther in public affairs than was incident to his position as a prominent member of the provincial legislature. He continued to win golden opinions from all sorts of people, both as a lawyer and public speaker. Dr. Ramsay, a contemporary, describes his mode of speaking and thinking, at this period, in a brief passage, which we quote: "His ideas," says Ramsay, "were clear and strong—his utterance rapid but distinct—his voice, action, and energetic manner of speaking forcibly impressed his sentiments on the minds and hearts of all who heard him. At reply, he was quick—instantly comprehending the force of an objection, and saw at once the best mode of weakening or repelling it. He successfully used both argument and wit for invalidating the observations of his adversary: by the former, he destroyed or weakened their force; by the latter, he placed them in so ludicrous a light that it often convinced, and scarcely ever failed of conciliating and pleasing his hearers. Many were the triumphs of his eloquence at the bar and in the legislature; and, in the former case, probably more than strict, impartial justice would sanction—for judges, juries, counsel, and audience hung on his accents."

But the repeal of the Stamp Act did not prove a satisfactory concession—was a temporary one only—to the roused apprehensive spirit of American liberty. Her politicians and patriots, once awakened to suspicion, were not easily to be lulled into repose and confidence. The year 1774 opened the field anew to Mr. Rutledge, in the passage of the Boston Port Bill—tidings of which, when they reached Charleston, kindled afresh the apprehensions of the intelligent, and produced almost as much excitement as prevailed in Boston. A general meeting of the inhabitants was instantly invoked, by expresses despatched to every quarter of the province. The persons then brought together in convention opened the deliberations with a general survey of the proceedings of the British parliament. This survey, however, did not result in much unanimity of opinion. The excitement grew with the discussion. The projects of the politicians varied according to the degree of indifference which they felt, when they came to consider the inverse power of that authority whose anger they were now likely to provoke by their proceedings. Several schemes of action, or of opinion, were presented for their consideration, but none of a kind to obtain more than a partial and feeble support. In the appointment of delegates to a general congress, no objection was made. But this appointment was trammelled with proposed restraints and a limitation of powers, which must

have ended in rendering the delegation utterly impotent for good. Here it was that the absence of domestic sympathies, arising from mutual intercourse between the colonies, was clearly perceptible. It was insisted that the delegates so chosen should be instructed as to the extent which they might go in pledging the colony to the support of the Bostonians. This was equivalent to a repudiation of that community of cause and interests which alone could bring about a hearty co-operation of the colonies against the power of the mother country. It was merely a complimentary expression of sympathy to a sister colony, which implied neither risk nor sacrifices. The convention was likely to prove abortive, and the friends of *mouvements*, and of the common cause, were in despair on every hand. It was while the doubt and confusion were greatest, that Mr. Rutledge rose to the crisis. He looked beyond the immediate occasion, and, in the case of Massachusetts, beheld that of South Carolina and of every other colony, should like circumstances bring about a like collision between the parent state and its progeny. He succeeded in conveying his convictions to his audience. He knew that South Carolina had been a favourite, simply because she was not a rival. Let the occasion but occur when an independent trade should become her policy—when she should embark in manufactures, and claim to share with the British people, at home, the equal advantages of the Constitution—and he clearly described her fate as certain to be that of Massachusetts in the day of her present exigency. It is one of the essential proofs of genius, that it argues for future generations. Mr. Rutledge was prepared to peril the present for the future. He submitted resolutions, the amount of which was, that the delegates from South Carolina should take their part in the Continental Congress with minds untrammelled—should go without instruction—and be left to their own wisdom and penetration to determine what was to be done, and what Carolina should pledge herself to do in the common struggle with the parent empire. He enforced his resolution with a powerful speech. He argued with successful force, and keen sarcasm, against any such absurdity as that of sending puppets, mere dumb waiters, to a deliberative assembly which called equally for the highest courage and wisdom. Delegates were supposed to be chosen with some regard to their capacity and honesty, particularly where they were sent to consult with associates upon propositions of which no one in the primary assemblies could possibly know any thing. Mr. Rutledge demonstrated that any trust short of the most plenary discretion would leave the representative in a wretched impotency, and defeat utterly the ends

of the appointment. There was a crisis of tremendous issues to be encountered, and he was for meeting it with all the wisdom and the energy of manhood. When it was objected by some of the advocates for instruction, that such a discretion was obnoxious to abuse—that the delegates might betray their principals, and usurp a judgment inconsistent with the authorities conferred upon them—his answer was equally laconic and vehement: "Hang them! hang them!"

He carried his measures and his audience. On this occasion he made a powerful impression on the multitude. They acknowledged the justice of his opinions. His courage stimulated them. His energies infused themselves into the popular heart, and lifted the common sentiment to a first consciousness of that revolution which had now, in the eyes of far-seeing men, became unavoidable; and which, so far as Carolina was concerned, received its great impulse on that day and by that proceeding. The resolution itself was freedom. It was a vital stab to the *foreign* government. Every thing was confided to the discretion of the delegates, and the colony pledged itself to sustain them. Five persons were authorized to do in the premises whatever the exigency required. These five persons were John Rutledge, Edward Rutledge, (his brother,) Christopher Gadsden, Thomas Lynch, and Henry Middleton. Their names deserve to be remembered. They were choice specimens equally of the talents, the virtue, and the character of the people. Furnished with such ample powers, they took their seats in Congress under peculiar advantages. The proceedings of that famous body, then assembled in Philadelphia, are well known to our histories. Resolutions, restricting the business intercourse between the colonies and the mother country, were passed; imports from Great Britain, Ireland, and the West Indies were to be forborne; the case of Massachusetts was declared to be that of all America; the conduct of the people of that province was cordially approved, and the colonies were all pledged to their support; a declaration and resolves were passed, asserting the rights and grievances of the colonies; and in these, as by other proceedings which we need not enumerate, Congress made a considerable stride in the path of revolution. The merit of these proceedings was necessarily and largely shared by Mr. Rutledge. They embodied his spirit, and were evolved with his energies. He participated industriously in their details, and their principles were illustrated by his eloquence. We have seen the estimate of his powers as made by Patrick Henry. It was one which seems to have been generally allowed. Already,

indeed, had the epithet Demosthenean been employed to describe the characteristics of his oratory.

The Congress terminated its sittings in October, 1774, and Mr. Rutledge returned to Charleston to meet his constituents. Some of his proceedings were the subject of cavil. The Commons House of Assembly sat in Charleston in January, 1775, and the delegates of the colony to Congress appeared before them to render an account of their proceedings. These were taken up for consideration *seriatim*. The articles of association determined upon by Congress were, of course, particularly scrutinized. The *four last words* of the *fourth* article of that instrument, which, while interdicting exports to Great Britain, Ireland, or the West Indies, makes an especial exception in favour of "*rice to Europe*," occasioned no little disquiet and disgust. The people of the interior, who dealt in corn, hemp, pork, butter, and lumber, in whose behalf no similar exception had been made, deemed themselves sacrificed to the wealthy rice-planters. They were suspicious and angry accordingly. A more noble feeling of self-sacrifice prompted others, at the head of whom was Christopher Gadsden, one of the delegates, to regret that any reservation whatever had been made in favour of any article, by which a doubt could be thrown upon the patriotism of the colony. But Mr. Rutledge had his reasons ready, and the defence of himself and his three associates—Mr. Gadsden having voted against the exception—was devolved upon him. The substance of the speech which he made upon this occasion shows his sagacity. The outline of his argument may be condensed in a paragraph. He said that at an early period he and the other delegates from South Carolina had warmly pressed upon Congress resolutions equally of *total non-importation and non-exportation*, to go into immediate effect;—that as a non-importation act in regard to Great Britain and Ireland was to withhold from them the advantages which their people might derive from the receipt of American commodities, so the end was most certain to be effected by retaining those commodities altogether in America. Such restrictions, however, he soon found, could not be carried;—the northern colonies resolving to remit to England as usual, to pay their debts, by a circuitous trade in flour and fish with the rest of Europe. The commodities which they shipped to the mother country were really of little value—and the rival trade would be little affected by the terms of the association as proposed by them. For example, he remarked, that Philadelphia carried on a trade of export to the amount of £700,000 sterling; of which scarce £50,000 ever sought the markets of the mother country.

Not to export, therefore, to Great Britain, would be no sacrifice or loss on the part of Philadelphia. It was evident that the colonies thus and similarly circumstanced, would really less annoy the mother country by resolves of non-exportation in the matter of trade, than promote and preserve their own. Seeing this, he thought it but due to the interests of Carolina to preserve her trade as entire as possible. In rice and indigo consisted her main values. These sought no other markets than the British; and he thought it neither politic nor liberal to allow the trade of one colony to suffer and be destroyed, while that of others, making really no sacrifice, was to be built up at her expense. If the cause of American liberty required that burdens should be borne by the people, it was only proper that such burdens should be equally distributed. He, at least, was not prepared to yield to such inequalities in the restrictions as should operate a gross injustice upon some sections, while others had no hurt. "Upon the whole," said Mr. Rutledge, "this whole proceeding had rather the aspect of a commercial scheme among the flour colonies, to find a better vent for their flour through the British Channel, by preventing, if possible, any rice from being sent to those markets. For his part," he added, "he should never consent that his constituents should become the dupes of any people. He was not willing to yield them to the unreasonable expectations and exactions of the North," &c.

It does not need that we should pursue this discussion, which had no other result than to prove the equal vigilance and sagacity of the speaker. He triumphantly re-established himself and his associates in the confidence of his constituents, and the delegation were re-elected to Congress without opposition: an honourable acquittal, which included the cordial "well done" of an approving people. This decision was reiterated in a public vote of thanks from the assembly, when, at the close of the next session of Congress, they made their report, and were again rechosen to fill the position they had maintained so well. Successive elections had thus continued Mr. Rutledge in this office till the opening of the year 1776. At this time he returned to Charleston with Mr. Middleton, one of his associates. They were addressed by the president of the Provincial (local) Congress in a very complimentary speech, in which their performances, and those of the body with which they wrought, were reviewed at large and honourably distinguished. A resolution having been introduced into the Provincial Congress, declaring the existing mode of conducting public affairs to be inadequate to the well-being and government of the country, a committee of eleven, of whom Mr.

Rutledge was the second, was appointed to prepare and to report a plan of government. The new scheme of organization, intended for the emergency, was presented on the 5th of March; and while its measures were yet under consideration, new acts of aggression on the part of Great Britain silenced its opponents, and proposed such an amendment of some of its provisions as was more in accordance with the bolder spirits of the hour. On the 24th of the month, Mr. Rutledge, from the committee to prepare the constitution, made a further report, greatly enlarging the objects and strengthening the tone of the former. This suspended much of the preceding performance, and arrested the discussion. The whole of the preamble to this report was from the pen of Mr. Rutledge. We have little doubt that to his activity and grasp of mind, his political acuteness, and great legal knowledge, we are indebted for most of the provisions of this instrument. We should like to give this preamble to our readers, not less because of its compactness and comprehensiveness, than because it embodies, in nearly the same order, and sometimes in the same phraseology, the very matter which, in a more condensed form, was subsequently employed by Mr. Jefferson in the famous Declaration. But our limits will not suffer us to do so. The curious reader will find it in the Appendix to "Drayton's Memoirs," second volume, p. 186.

The agency of Mr. Rutledge in the preparation of this first constitution of South Carolina was duly acknowledged by the assembly, whose first act, after the adoption of the new organization, was to elect him, under its provisions, to the presidency of the state. It does not appear that his nomination met with any opposition. In a brief extemporaneous speech—which has been reported—he returned his thanks for this compliment and distinction. "I have," said he, "the deepest sense of this honour. The being called, by the free suffrages of a brave and generous people, to preside over their welfare, is, in my opinion, the highest that any man can receive. But, dreading the weighty and arduous duties of this station, I really wish that your choice had fallen upon one better qualified to discharge them; for, though in zeal and integrity I will yield to no man, I yet know that in ability to serve you I am inferior to many. Yet, as I have always thought every man's best services due to his country, no fear of slander, no difficulty or danger, shall deter me from yielding mine." In reply to an address of both houses tendering their sympathy and support, he answers, among other things: "Be persuaded, that no man would embrace a just and equitable accommodation with Great Britain more gladly than myself; but

until so desirable an object can be obtained, the defence of my country, and preservation of *that* constitution which, from a perfect knowledge of the rights, and a laudable regard to the happiness of the people, you have so wisely framed, shall engross my whole attention."

His pledges, thus solemnly made, were amply carried out in performance during his subsequent career. His first speech was delivered to both houses of the General Assembly, on the 11th of April, 1776. It discussed, briefly, the relations of the contending countries—the condition of the dispute—and was supposed at the time so ably to express the rights and wrongs of America, that it was put forth by the assembly in handbills, as well as in the newspapers. Reduced to writing, it is not such a performance as would command attention now. The subject then was a new one—the arguments were to be sought; new governing principles were in progress, and the phraseology, which has now become proverbial among us, was then naturally crude, in due degree with the freshness and difficulty of the occasion. Besides, Mr. Rutledge was an orator, and not a writer. The subtleties of eloquence—those exquisite snatches of thought, fancy, and feeling, beyond the reach of art, which so completely ravish in delivery—usually evaporate from the speeches of the best orators, as in the case of Sheridan, when carried to the press; and we shall be astonished—we, even, who have heard—to find how common-place shall be the oration which has filled our hearts with delight, as the well-rounded periods of passionate flights have flown from the lips of the speaker to our ears.

The post which Mr. Rutledge had consented to accept was by no means a *sinecure*. Events were ripening rapidly to explosion. The British government resented, in particular, the course taken by South Carolina. A colony which had been so much a favourite, and which was supposed to be so equally rich and feeble, at once invited aggression. Resentment and appetite equally prompted an early and decisive demonstration against her, the more particularly as she too had flung the teas into the river, and bombarded the king's ships in her waters. The new constitution was adopted on the 26th of March. President Rutledge was inaugurated on the 27th, and, early in May, tidings reached the colony that Sir Peter Parker, with a heavy British squadron, was already at Cape Fear in North Carolina. All now was preparation for the enemy in Charleston. Levies were soon raised in Virginia and North Carolina for the succour of the threatened colony and city, and the Continental Congress furnished an experienced general in the person of the more

notorious than renowned Charles Lee—a man of rare talents, but of an eccentricity that rendered them very uncertain, and greatly impaired their value and efficiency. It was fortunate for South Carolina that she had placed at the head of her affairs a man so resolute and prompt, and a statesman so sagacious as John Rutledge. When Lee looked at the fortress on Sullivan's Island, by which the approaches from the sea were defended, he was for its immediate abandonment. He had great faith in British frigates. "They will knock your fort about your heads in half an hour," was his remark to Moultrie, to whom its defence had been assigned. He diminished the number of troops on the island, as he had no confidence in the ability of the fort to sustain itself against assault; declared it to be "a mere slaughter-pen;" and, writing to Moultrie, when the enemy was almost coming on, went so far as to say, "*I would order the whole body off the island*, but apprehend it might make your garrison uneasy." But for Rutledge, this step would certainly have been taken, and thus would have been lost to the American arms one of the most glorious exhibitions of valour and fortitude that our annals have to boast. How different were the views and resolves of the civilian Rutledge! How fortunate that he was in authority, and capable of exercising a will which could control the caprices of the continental general. He writes to Moultrie from the city, on the very morning of the battle, and just as the conflict was about to open:

"*General Lee wishes you to evacuate the fort. You will not do so without an order from me. I would sooner cut off my hand than write one.* J. RUTLEDGE."

This note is brim-full of character. The Spartan brevity which it displays, speaks volumes for the Spartan resolution which dictated it. The issue of this first battle, June 28, 1776, is well known to our history. An overwhelming British fleet was beaten off with immense slaughter by militiamen who had never before seen the smoke of an enemy's fire—entrenched behind an unfinished fortress of palmetto logs and sand. While the battle is yet raging, and after it had continued for two mortal hours, General Lee writes to Moultrie:—"Dear Colonel: If you should unfortunately expend your ammunition without beating off the enemy, or driving them on ground, spike your guns and retreat with all the order possible." Lee seems to have had but the one idea in his head on this occasion,—retreat, retreat, nothing but retreat. How different, again,

the tone and spirit of Rutledge's instructions, written about the same moment:

"I send you five hundred pounds of powder. Our collection is not great. Honour and victory to you, and your worthy countrymen with you! Do not make too free with your cannon,—cool, and do mischief."

Never did commander-in-chief, not actually in the battle, do more toward the attainment of the victory. But for Rutledge, there had been no victory. Lee was wholly opposed to risking the encounter. Yet Lee received the thanks of Congress for the triumph of the day, as if it had been the result of his wisdom and his courage. *Suum quique tribuito.*

The result of this admirably conducted conflict was of immeasurable importance to South Carolina. It gave her a partial respite for three years from the horrors of invasion. She might well estimate the amount of evil and misery which she escaped in this period, by a reference to what she had to endure after the fall of the State, in 1780. She was then doomed to drink to the very dregs that cup of wrath and bitterness which the noble firmness, courage, and intelligence of her sons enabled her, on this occasion, to avert untasted from her lips.

Mr. Rutledge continued in the office of the president of the colony until March, 1778, when he resigned. Dr. Ramsay remarks: "The occasion and reasons of his resignation are matters of general history. This did not diminish his popularity." Their general history is, at this day, a somewhat obscure one. The occasion of his resignation was the adoption of a new constitution, to which he was opposed, as quite too Democratic; annihilating, as it did, the council, and reducing the legislative authority from three to two branches. His administration had been highly fortunate and successful. We have seen the glorious result of the first British invasion. Beside this, with the exception of an Indian war in the interior, fomented by British agents and the local loyalists, South Carolina enjoyed a condition of almost uninterrupted repose—order prevailed throughout the province, and the machine of government, newly adapted as it had been to the condition of the country, worked as regularly as if it had been a thousand years in operation. Still, it had been conceived and planned in a moment of emergency, to answer a temporary purpose; had served its turn; and now gave way to another, which was supposed to be better suited to the necessities and genius of the people. Though opposed, as we have seen, to this constitution, Mr. Rutledge soon received a fresh proof of the esteem in

which his talents and worth were held, being reinstated in 1779, in the executive office of the state, but with the title of governor in place of that of president. This compliment was heightened in value by the fact that it was in a moment of alarm and danger, and with a special view to the exigency, that he was thus called upon to resume the chair of the executive. He had scarcely taken the oath of office when the state was penetrated by a British army under Brigadier-General Provost. Georgia, by this time, had fallen into the hands of the enemy, and Carolina was easily invaded through the sister colony. Governor Rutledge instantly addressed all his energies to encounter the emergency. To him and to his council it was delegated by the legislature "to do every thing that appeared to him and them necessary for the public good." He again proved himself worthy of his trust. At the first tidings of danger he had collected a considerable militia force, which he had cantoned at Orangeburg—a spot conveniently contiguous to the most assailable points. It was not known from what direction the enemy would make his approaches. The long line of the Savannah River presented a thousand points, in all which his ingress might be easy. General Lincoln, in the mean time, had been sent on by Congress to the South to take charge of the Continental forces in Carolina. This gentleman, by penetrating into Georgia with all the regulars, and pressing for some distance into the interior, had, in some degree, opened the door to his enemy, and invited his entrance. The opportunity was encouraging, and, hoping to capture Charleston by a *coup de main*, the British general, with a select body of three thousand light troops, unencumbered by unnecessary baggage or artillery, dashed across the Savannah by a lower route, and began his advance toward the metropolis. Moultrie, with twelve hundred militia, threw themselves across the track of Provost, and, retreating slowly before him, continued to retard his progress, by impressing upon him the necessity of a caution which he might not else have been disposed to observe. This obstacle took from the invasion its original character. Its conquests were no longer to be made by a single and hidden blow. Time was given to the country. The alarm was spread. Lincoln was recalled from Georgia, and Rutledge pressed down from Orangeburg at the head of the militia. Charleston was thus relieved at the moment of its greatest peril, and the British, a second time, defrauded of their prey when almost within their talons. Afraid of being enclosed between two fires by the approach of Lincoln and Rutledge, of which he was apprised by means of an intercepted letter, Provost disappeared as suddenly as

he came. He retired upon Stono, where he was encountered by the Americans in a bloody battle, which was, however, indecisive. He finally left the State, and returned to Savannah, which the united forces of France and America were now preparing to beleaguer. The failure of this siege and assault, in which the troops of Carolina suffered severely, precipated the fall of Charleston. With the departure of the French fleet from the coast, which followed immediately after the defeat of the attempt on Savannah, Sir Henry Clinton projected a grand expedition against Carolina. It was in a moment very inauspicious to her hopes that he did so. The fruit was now ripe and ready for his hands. The bills of credit of the State had sunk enormously from the standard set upon them, and could no longer be redeemed. With a want of money there was a corresponding deficiency of the men and munitions of war. The resources of the country in all these respects had been greatly exhausted and consumed, in carrying on a twofold struggle in the adjoining provinces of Georgia and Florida, against the British the Royalists, and Indians; and within the borders of Carolina, in the upper country, against the two latter united. The worst misfortune was in the extreme difference of feeling and opinion by which the country was torn and divided. Its numerical force was thus lost in the conflict, while its moral was emasculated of all its virtue. To defend Charleston with troops from the interior was scarcely possible, from the circumstances of the city. The small-pox, which had made its appearance in the metropolis, was one of the worst terrors that could be presented to the imagination of the forest population. The country militia shrunk from this enemy, who never would have feared the British; and but few of them could be persuaded to march toward the seaboard. It was under these inauspicious circumstances that the State was called upon to encounter the best appointed army that was ever brought against it. The British troops, amounting to near twelve thousand men, had effected a landing early in February, 1780, within thirty miles of Charleston. The assembly then closed its session; its last act being to clothe Governor Rutledge with full powers to see that the Republic sustained no harm. He immediately ordered the militia to rendezvous, but they came in slowly. We have shown the adverse fortunes with which he had now to contend. If mere mortal effort might have availed to save the State, thus straitened in its resources and enfeebled by evil circumstances, the labours of John Rutledge must have done so. But the fate was written. The British crossed the Ashley, and the investment of the city was begun on the 1st day of April, 1780.

It is not necessary to our purpose to follow the progress of the siege. Enough that we mention that, under the discouraging circumstances by which he was surrounded, the governor lost no jot of heart or resolution, and relaxed none of those energies for which he had been always distinguished. Contingents from Virginia and North Carolina had swelled the militia force within the city to something over four thousand men. The fortifications of the place were field-works only, badly served with artillery, and of an extent too great for the defenders properly to man. The British army, nearly thrice their number, were the best troops in the service, and picked for the occasion. A powerful fleet of men-of-war and transports accompanied the expedition. It was at the beginning of the investment that the following letter was written. It was addressed to the Hon. Henry Laurens, late President of Congress, who was then preparing to depart on a foreign mission. The contents of the letter are unimportant, except as they afford a glimpse of the tone and temper of the writer. The handwriting of Mr. Rutledge is bold, free, capacious, *eloquent*. The letters are large, as if the hand, in writing, had been lifted from the paper; and the letters seem *struck* rather than described or traced—they are flowing and graceful, with a uniform *dip* forward—denoting eagerness, a character very frank and sanguine, and at the same time very decisive.

"CHARLESTON, *March* 26, 1780.

"Dear Sir—Inclosed you will receive a letter for the general at Martinique, which you will be pleased to present. The enemy's naval force in the harbour and at Wappoo, consists (according to Timothy's account this afternoon, when he reckoned 'em very distinctly) of one 50, two 44, six 28 to 32, and five twenty gun ships;* the [name illegible] of 18 guns; two brigantines, of 16 guns; one sloop of 10, and four galleys. Including vessels of all sorts, they have 121 sail. Among them are, it is believed, the Hancock, Raleigh, and Delaware. Of their land force we have no authentic account, but it is said to be between 7 and 8000 men, who are between Fort Johnson and Wragg's Barony. The troops from Georgia, about 5 or 600, and who were yesterday morning at the 13 mile house, on the road from Jacksonborough to Stono, I presume effected a junction with them last night. Major Young can, I suppose, give you any further material information relative to matters here. I can't say that I flatter myself with any expectation of relief from the

* Peter Timothy, editor of a newspaper.

French islands. I doubt not, and request, that you will make such representations as may be most proper, and use the most effectual means to obtain it. With my best wishes for a pleasant voyage, a successful issue to your negotiations, and a speedy and happy return to us,

"I am, with great esteem, dear sir, your most obedient servant,

"J. RUTLEDGE.

"P. S.—The vessel which has been reckoned a 64 is not; but is the Renown, of 50 guns.

"The Hon. HENRY LAURENS."

In this letter was an inclosure addressed to the Marquis de Bouillé.

"CHARLESTON, So. CAROLINA, *March* 20, 1780.

"Sir—The Honorable Mr. Laurens, late President of Congress, and appointed by them to execute an important commission in Europe, will do me the favour of presenting this letter to your Excellency, and I flatter myself that you will readily accommodate him with the means of facilitating his voyage. This gentleman will give you full and authentic information of the strength and operations of the enemy in this State; and as speedy succors to it would render essential service to the United States of America, I persuade myself that you will with pleasure afford them, if they may be spared from the forces under your command, consistently with the safety of his most Christian majesty's islands.

"With great esteem, &c., J. RUTLEDGE."

The assistance thus solicited was never accorded, or it came too late to be of any service. The British investments were pressing to completion, when General Lincoln insisted upon the departure of Governor Rutledge from the town, in order not only that he might escape the danger of captivity, but that he might be more at liberty to operate in the interior in the collection of levies for the assistance of the place. He left Charleston, accordingly, on the 12th of April, and on the 12th of May the city was surrendered. Famine had made its appearance, in alliance with the British arms, and, after a stout resistance of six weeks, the spirit and firmness of the garrison succumbed: a misfortune which, in its influence upon the popular mind as well at home as in other States, left it very doubtful, whether it had not been better, following out the policy of Washington, to have left the city to its fate at first, without offering to defend it—thus economizing the *physique* of the country for those open fields in which they might have been more successfully and

hopefully employed. The history of Governor Rutledge is, henceforth, that of the State.

The fall of the city of Charleston, though at the time an almost fatal blow to the strength and resolution of South Carolina,—exhausting her *materiel*, and greatly lessening her *personnel* for war,—did not diminish the hopes, nor paralyze the exertions of Governor Rutledge. The first effect of the disaster was to discourage and disappoint the militia of the interior. Failing, as we have seen, in consequence of the sickness in the capital, to collect them in sufficient numbers for its relief, he was perforce compelled to attempt a stand against the enemy on the north side of the Santee. But circumstances still fought against his purpose of performance. The rapid transit of the British light troops through the interior—the murderous and wretched tragedy in which the wanton and savage partizan, Tarleton, butchered the contingent of Colonel Beaufort—the surprise of the American cavalry under Colonels White and Washington—and other similar disasters occurring about the same time, completed the panic among the militia which the surrender of the metropolis had begun, and most effectually defeated the exertions, however earnestly and honestly urged, by which the governor endeavoured to give them consistency and form. The progress of the British eagerly urged, and in a force too powerful for any serious opposition, found the province prostrate. The spirit of the country appeared subdued, the energies of the people lay dormant, and patriotism, crouching in the thicket and the swamp, held its breath for a time, imploring, but waiting a more auspicious season.

There was but one course of action in this gloomy interval. That was, to raise troops in the States of North Carolina and Virginia. To this work Governor Rutledge addressed all his great abilities. He proceeded to the former state as soon as he became hopeless of present action in his own; but he did not take his departure before he had shown himself a sagacious judge of endowment and resource in others. His first act before leaving South Carolina was to promote to high military rank, and to the special guardianship of particular localities, three of the most remarkable of the military characters by which the revolutionary warfare in the South was illustrated. This admirable discernment, which singled out Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, among the first, and conferred upon them the highest discretion, was of itself a most admirable service to the cause of the State and nation. It alone would suffice to indicate the judgment of Rutledge, his singular discernment of character, and his just appreciation of the constituents of first-rate military endowment. It is equally

in proof of his unselfish desire and honourable anxiety to employ the capacity wherever it might be found. The career of Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, forms a valuable and vital portion of American history. They contributed greatly to the establishment of our military character, in proof of the national genius for war, and of its ability to render secure the vast interests for which it was then making the first great struggle. But never did men commence their labours at a more discouraging period. As, perhaps, no man but John Rutledge would have so readily perceived their merits, and so frankly confided to their discretion, so, perhaps, none but he could have encouraged them to persevere in the hour of the State's extremity. The disasters already mentioned succeeding the surrounding of Charleston, the destruction or dispersion of the State cavalry, the defeat of Buford, &c., were soon followed by another and a more fatal disaster, that seemed to put a final extinguisher upon every hope that patriotism had entertained. This was the mortal defeat of General Gates, at Camden, on the 16th of August, 1780: decidedly the most unmitigated disaster of the whole war, and due almost wholly to the rashness and morbid self-esteem of the commander. On the 3d of October, six weeks after this event, a letter from Governor Rutledge shows him to be at Hillsborough, N. C., whither General Gates had fled, and where he was busy in collecting the *debris* of his scattered forces. Here, mournfully contemplating the wreck of a gallant army which, properly conducted, might have rescued the country from the grasp of her enemies, but which was wretchedly sacrificed by the hot haste of arrogance, Rutledge patiently waited the arrival of a very different captain. General Greene had now been designated by Washington for the command of the Southern army, and the recommendation had received the sanction of Congress. Greene was a cool, resolute, energetic, but cautious chieftain, whose resolves were not the less certain because they were tempered by discretion. He reached the encampment, and took command early in December. His arrival was distinguished by several unlooked-for and highly encouraging symptoms. Sumter had beaten Tarleton at Woodstock; Morgan had given him another severe drubbing at the Cowpens; and the battle of King's Mountain had been gloriously achieved by the native guerilla forces of the neighbourhood, at the cost of a select body of Bright's troops, under the lead of a most able officer. The spirit of the land had shown itself fast recovering from its recent prostration, not only in these performances, but in the frequent, beautiful little partizan successes of Marion, and other captains of militia. But the re-

sources of the country were not of a sort to improve these prospects. They were wholly inadequate to the most absolute necessities of the war. Greene writes, immediately after the battle at the Cowpens, in the following language: "The situation of these States is wretched, and the distress of the inhabitants beyond all description. Nor is the condition of the army more agreeable. We have but few troops that are fit for duty, and all those are employed upon different detachments, the success of which depends upon time and chance. We are obliged to subsist ourselves by our own industry, *aided by the influence of Governor Rutledge, who is one of the first characters I ever met with.* Our prospects are gloomy, notwithstanding these flashes of success," &c.

This slight paragraph will suffice to show what were the difficulties in the way of patriotic, civil, or military performance in the South at this melancholy period, and will equally indicate the wonderful merit which could yet succeed in spite of them. The honourable tribute thus passingly paid to Rutledge, was honourably deserved. Never was public man more constantly, or courageously, or ingeniously busy, in all this time, to meet the emergency, to clothe and encourage the militia, to stimulate the officers to exertion, and to bring out all the resources of the State. He was particularly and eagerly on the look out, always, to secure and employ persons of talent and courage, and showed himself, as we have seen, singularly discerning in the choice of favourites, assigning to each the performance of just such duties as lay most properly within the sphere of his ability. One of the letters which he wrote about this period, relates to a person who afterwards proved himself one of the boldest and most hardy partizan captains of the time; who, in fact, occupying but a moderate rank, acquired a high local celebrity, and has become, in some degree, an historical personage. It is in a letter to Marion, which now lies before us, that Mr. Kittredge recommends that Captain Snipes be honoured with an independent command, his men to be raised south and west of the Santee.

Governor Rutledge seems to have mostly accompanied the army, from the moment he joined the broken cohorts of Gates, to the arrival of Greene at the camp, and his subsequent and admirable manœuvring against Cornwallis, in North Carolina. It was now deemed necessary that he should employ his energies in other quarters, with the view to his procuring for the army those supplies without which it was scarcely possible to keep the troops together. A letter which we give, addressed to Marion, is dated from "The camp at Haw River, March 8, 1777."

"Dear Sir—The present situation of affairs rendering it impracticable for me to return immediately into South Carolina—not seeing any prospect of being able to go thither very soon; and it being impossible, if we could penetrate the country, to re-establish the civil government for some time—and my remaining here being of no service to the state,—I have determined to set off, in a few days, for Philadelphia, with a view of procuring, if possible, some supplies of clothing for our militia, whose distress for want of it gives me great concern, and of obtaining such effectual aid as may soon restore both the town and country to our possession. My utmost endeavours for these purposes shall be exerted; and I flatter myself that I may succeed by personal applications. I am persuaded of the continuance of your utmost attention, and hope you will cultivate a good understanding with Generals Sumter and Pickens, and do every thing in your power to forward the former's views. I shall be glad to hear from you when any thing material offers, under cover, to General Greene; and shall write to you, under cover to him, when I have any thing material to communicate. I have not yet received the blank militia commissions, which I expected. If I do not get them before I arrive at Richmond, I will have some printed there, and transmitted to you. In the mean time, you will give brevets; and, in order that you may carry sufficient authority over the several officers in your brigade, you may remove any of them, and appoint others in their stead, from time to time, as you think proper. I have sent some linen to be distributed among the militia of your's, Generals Sumter's, and Pickens' brigades, as a free gift, from the States, according to their number and services. I wish it was more worth their acceptance. Without doubt you must want many articles of clothing, &c. for you own use. I therefore request that you will send me a list, per express to General Greene, and you may depend on my obtaining them at Philadelphia; but don't delay this matter, as I, perhaps, may stay but a little time there. I hope it will not be necessary for me to remain long.

"I am, with great regard, dear sir, your most obedient servant,

"J. Rutledge."

This letter justifies and shows the reason for the journey to Philadelphia, which has somewhere been censured. There is no doubt that the matter was urged by General Greene himself, and the commission undertaken by Rutledge, from whose personal influence with Congress much was hoped in the way of obtaining supplies, which were quite too frequently promised to be often provided. It may

be proper to mention, that he had experienced this influence satisfactorily, but a little while before, in urging successfully the claims of Colonel Morgan to be made a brigadier. The effect of Rutledge's journey was soon apparent. A large supply of clothing was expedited from Philadelphia; but its progress was disastrous. Twelve wagon loads were captured by a British detachment, and a large portion of the militia in Greene's army remained for some time longer *almost as naked as the hour they were born. Green moss, wrapped about their loins and shoulders, protected them from the galling effect of knapsacks, bayonets, and belts.* Yet with these soldiers the American general penetrated into South Carolina, though the province everywhere was still in possession of their enemy. Assailed by this naked soldiery, and by the partizan militia who were quite as destitute, the British forts, one after another, were yielded to their enterprise and courage. Such were the successes of the separate commands of Marion, Sumter, and Lee, while the main army under Greene kept the superior strength of the enemy in check. To the policy of Greene, Rutledge accorded his counsels, and the sagacity which dictated the progress of the former, was in some measure due to the wisdom of the latter.

Meanwhile, the drawn battle of Hobkirk's Hill had taken place, and this and preceding conflicts, though seldom decisive of the final victory, were yet significant of a continual rise in the moral and numerical strength of the patriots. The siege of the British post at '96 followed, and resulted in failure. The place, after a very spirited attempt by assault, was relieved by Lord Rawdon with superior forces. The war gradually descended to the lower country of Carolina, leaving the country, however, in commotion everywhere. Traversed by opposing armies, the people, more or less in arms in every quarter on one side or the other, gave one another but little respite from a strife which had now become too familiar, to offend by its bloody and merciless exhibitions. To bring order into this chaos, to restore harmony, and bring peace to follow in the footsteps of war, was the arduous task to which the energies of Rutledge were now chiefly directed. We find him in Carolina early in August. Here the first resumption of his civil authority was by a proclamation issued on the 5th of that month. This document was meant to arrest the career of mere plundering and marauding parties, by invoking against them the whole vengeance of the community. But the spirit of rage and retaliation were abroad, and not easy to be pacified. Carnage desolated the face of the land, and, in the day of his declining power, the enemy contributed still further

to darken the horrors of the scene and times by wanton and peevish persecutions of his victims. The citizen prisoners, taken at the capitulation of Charleston, and who, till this time, had been left in partial possession of their property, were now, after their exchange as prisoners, ordered to withdraw with their families from Carolina. This measure necessarily left their possessions to the considerate keeping of those whose interests lay in despoiling them. The wrong called for a remedy. Governor Rutledge was prompt in the application of a stern one. He instantly employed a measure of retaliation, the severity of which was due wholly to the wanton aggression of the British authorities. He ordered all the families of Loyalists to repair to Charleston, which was in possession of the enemy. They were thus crowded upon the British, leaving their plantations in the interior in a condition precisely parallel to that which the proclamations of the invaders had forced upon the patriots. Retaliatory measures are matters always of very doubtful propriety. It is only in particular cases, and for the correction of some enormous evil, that they can be resorted to,—and it is then proper to know that they will be reasonably productive of the results aimed at. It is difficult, at this late day, to say in how far the proceedings of Governor Rutledge availed for his objects. It is enough, however, for his justification, to know that the provocation was one of great bitterness and of pernicious and ruinous consequences; and that something was necessary to be done to satisfy the enemy that they could not trample with impunity upon the people whom they had so unsuccessfully striven to bring to their knees. The following letter of Rutledge will relate this proceeding. It is addressed to Marion, and dated at Camden, September 3, 1781:

"Sir—On full consideration of the matter, I think that justice to our friends whose wives and families the enemy have sent out of the State, and policy, require that we should send into the enemy's lines the wives and families of all such men as are now with, and adhere to the British. I lament the distresses which many innocent women and children may probably suffer by this measure; but they must follow the fate of their husbands and parents. Blame can only be imputed to the latter, and to the British commanders, whose conduct, on the principle of retaliation, justifies this step,—which, all circumstances considered, is an indispensable one. You will, therefore, give the necessary orders for enforcing this measure within the district of your brigade, without delay or exception. I am much dissatisfied with the present allotment of the several brig-

ades in this state, and think that a fourth might be formed to the southward, and that the other three might be better divided. I wish you would consider this matter well, and give me your sentiments, as soon as convenient, on the best manner of establishing four brigades. I also request that you will furnish me, as soon as you can have it made out, with an accurate alphabetical list of all persons having property within your brigade, who come under the following heads or descriptions—distinguishing under which head they respectively fall. 1st. Such as have held, or hold British commissions; remarking what the commission is. 2d. Such as have gone over, and adhere to the British government, or whose conduct has manifested them to be notorious and dangerous enemies to their country. 3d. British subjects residing abroad."

Three days after another letter occurs on the same subject, which concludes with certain queries, the satisfaction of which would greatly help the progress of the modern historian.*

The measures of British wrath which provoked the retaliatory proceedings of Rutledge, and, as we claim, justified them, were followed up by one instance of atrocious judgment, which furnishes an appropriate catastrophe to their career of wantonness and crime. This was the execution of Colonel Isaac Hayne, an event well known in our annals, and forming, with the case of Captain Hale of Connecticut, the offset to that of Major André. On the 7th of August Governor Rutledge writes to General Marion, from the High Hills of Santee. He has still, since his return from Philadelphia, kept pace with the movements of the army. The Congaree lay between the British forces and those of Greene, soon to be crossed by the latter, seeking the opportunity for battle. The enemy having destroyed Georgetown by fire when abandoning it, Rutledge writes thus:

"Dear Sir—I am very sorry for the affair of Georgetown; and am inclined to think that if the enemy leave Charleston, they will

* A sample of these inquiries, which were desirable to the executive, upon which to justify and ground his proceedings, may be given:—1. When did you begin, and what methods did you take, to form a party? 2. What public measures increased, and what decreased, your force? 3. How did you get ammunition? How support your troops? 4. What are the particulars of your late action; the prisoners; and your leaving the State after the battle of ———? Your return to it? House burnings and murders, how many on both sides? What particular expedition have you undertaken when alone—your force when co-operating, your number at different times," &c.

serve that place in the same manner. The orders you have given respecting the inhabitants who have suffered by the destruction of Georgetown are very proper. It is our duty to alleviate their distresses as much as possible. I will speak to General Sumpter about adding the lower regiment to your brigade, and write you shortly on the point. . . . If your information about the embarkation at Charleston be well founded, I think it probable that the enemy will soon leave this part of the country, and go to town. However, I hope we shall not suffer them to do so. I entirely forgot, when I saw you last, to mention what I intended before we met, that *if a little hard money*, 30 *or* 35 *guineas*, would be useful for getting intelligence, or other service, I have this sum ready for you," &c.

Hard money was, indeed, a *desideratum*. We smile, in our times, at the idea of a governor of a state supplying a favourite general with thirty or thirty-five guineas, as a special boon; but we must remember that these thirty-five guineas were worth as many thousands, just then, in the famous continental currency. Rutledge brought with him from Philadelphia the scheme of those financial operations by which Mr. Morris hoped to raise cash and capital together, in order to meet the wants of the nation. But the hopes built upon these speculations were soon dissipated. The people of North and South Carolina had suffered much too painful experience in previous issues of paper promises, and not a shilling of money was raised by the expedient. Greene writes to Morris:

"I am sorry to inform you, that the governor met with none who were willing to interest themselves in the bank. His route was through a tract of country where the inhabitants were little acquainted with commerce, and therefore not likely to become adventurous in a measure of that sort."

But the governor, satisfied of the inadequacy of the scheme for raising money, but fully conscious that money must be raised, if it was designed and desirable that the Southern States should be rescued from the invader, proceeded to the adoption of measures much more decided, and which the dictatorial powers which had been confided to him by the Assembly were made to sanction. He determined to impress for State service a quantity of indigo, the produce of the middle country, of which a large amount had been stored away in different places, awaiting the opportunity for secret sale and transit. This was an instantaneous means of raising money—it was

so much hard cash—and the indigo was immediately placed to the credit of the army. A timid man would have never ventured upon a measure so likely to result in hideous outcry, and to bring odium upon the authority by which it was attempted. But Rutledge was not the man to shrink from any responsibility in prosecuting the work of the country. He writes to Marion from Camden: "I have appointed Captain Richardson to procure indigo and specie for public use, and request that you will give him every assistance in your power, to aid him in this business. If he should want an escort, or any military aid, you will be pleased to furnish him," &c. Another letter to Marion is dated at the High Hills of Santee, August 13, 1781. It relates to matters of considerable local interest, including the affairs of Colonel Hayne:

"Dear Sir—We really want a press so much, that I request you will lose no time in getting the paper and all other requisites for Walter, and sending him up here with them and his press, that he may go to work as soon as possible. It would be best to get the oil and lampblack where you procure the paper; but if they cannot be got there, I am told the latter may be made here; and so may neatsfoot oil, which I suppose will answer the purpose. I have heard of Mr. Lewis Dutarque passing this way. He is one of the addressors to Clinton on the reduction of Charleston. I think we should be very cautious how we admit such people to join us. I dare say there are many of them who would gladly do so; not for our sake, but their own. However, I wish to know from you upon what footing this man stands, in consequence of any thing that may have passed between you. You will consider the militia between Charleston and your brigade as annexed to it; but I would not have any appointment which General Sumter may have made, of officers, revoked while they behave properly. The Governor of North Carolina writes—but with what truth I know not—that 2500 (men) had embarked in Virginia for New York, (query, Yorktown?) which was closely besieged. A man arrived at Camden last Friday, who landed at Jamestown in Virginia, with several other prisoners of war, who had gone thither from Charleston: so that we may soon expect to see several of our friends from thence. I request that you will send immediately to Colonel Harden, and get a full and authentic account of the execution of Colonel Hayne, with every material circumstance relative to that unhappy affair. I am told that his son is possessed of copies of letters which passed between the Colonel and Balfour. Pray have them all transmitted to me as quickly as possible, with that ac-

count, and copies of Colonel Hayne's speech to his regiment—which, I understand, was the matter laid to his charge; and of the petition to the commandant of Charleston for his pardon, with the names of the petitioners. I think of appointing, immediately, an ordinary in each district, by whom wills may be proved, letters testified, and admininistration granted, and other business, within the ordinary's jurisdiction, transacted. The constitution directs that this shall be done; and I think it a measure absolutely necessary for a number of reasons. I wish you would recommend proper persons who will undertake the office of ordinary for Georgetown, Cheraw, and Charleston districts."

These extracts show that nothing escapes him in the way of business. His vigilance sees all necessities—his courage and intelligence prepares him instantly to apply the requisite agency. Here follows another proof of his decision. The "addressors to Clinton" were those residents of Charleston who, after its capitulation, addressed certain adulatory congratulations upon his successes, assuring him, at the same time, of their loyalty.

"Dear Sir—I understand there is, at Georgetown, a Mr. William Wayne, who, I find, was one of the 'addressors' to Clinton after the surrender of Charleston, and that he has brought a quantity of goods from thence, with which he is trading at Georgetown. I really am amazed at the impudence of these people, to dare, after such an atrocious act, to come out and reside among us, without making their applications to proper authority, and without knowing whether they would be received or not; as if they had really been guilty of no offence whatever; though, in my opinion, they have acted in the most criminal manner. For my part, I do not desire to have them with us, and will not receive any of them; for I should not believe them to be sincere, even if they pretended to conversion. They only come out to serve their own or the enemy's purpose, and even if they are sincere, I would not have them. We can do very well without them. Every one of us should lose all his property for such infamous conduct. I therefore desire that you will have this Wayne taken, and sent up to me under a proper guard; that you will make the necessary inquiries, and having discovered what property he has with him, or which may be come at, take the whole of it; let it consist of whatever it may—money, goods, negroes, boats, or any other article whatever; and send to me all such as may be conveyed hither, and dispose of all the rest for the public account. Be pleased

to inform, per safe hand, quickly, what is the result of your conduct in consequence of this order."

Another letter of the same date relates to another addressor. We pass from these to more important matters. Two days after date of this letter was fought the celebrated battle of Eutaw, which virtually broke the arm of the British power in Carolina, and compelled them to fall down upon the metropolis with their shattered forces. Governor Rutledge still attended the army, and was in the staff of Greene during the action. His pride was amply gratified at the behaviour of the State troops and militia on this occasions, as when he could write of the latter, that though in front of the battle, they were yet cool and resolute enough to deliver seventeen rounds before yielding to the pressure of British bayonets. This battle prompted the following letter to Marion, which was dated at Congaree, on the 15th of September, 1781. It opens the door of amnesty for the repentant Tories:

"Dear Sir—I think, after the glorious victory of Eutaws, it would be expedient to issue a proclamation, offering to all who have joined, and who are now with the enemy—excepting such as signed the congratulatory addresses to Clinton and Cornwallis, or have held, or hold commissions under the British Government—a free *pardon*, and permission for their wives and families to return to and re-occupy their possessions; on condition that such men shall appear at our head-quarters, or before a brigade, or the colonel of any regiment, and there subscribe an engagement to serve the State, faithfully, as militia-men, for six months; declaring, in case of their deserting within that time, that their wives and families shall be sent into Charleston, or the enemy's lines. . . . . I apprehend that such a measure would be well timed at this juncture, and might induce some—perhaps many—to return to their allegiance, and behave well; which would not only deprive the British of their services, but turn those services to our advantage. However, this is a nice point, and I don't know how it will be relished by our friends. You know, mankind generally judge of the propriety of measures from events. These we cannot foresee; but it is our duty to consider what they probably will be, and take such steps as are most likely to produce the best effects. I now request that you will favour me, by bearer, with your opinion on these several points:—1st, Whether you think it advisable to issue any proclamation or offer of pardon? 2dly, Would it be best to make any condition at all of the pardon:

if a condition made, should it be that all persons [accepting should] enter the continental service for a certain time—(that I am afraid they would not like)—or would it be sufficient to require them to serve as militia for a certain time? After the expiration they would be liable to do duty as the other inhabitants. Are six months' service long enough? I think a time ought to be limited for their coming in,—suppose twenty days; would that be long enough? would it not be best that they should appear, and subscribe the agreement at one certain place,—say the head-quarters of the army,—or should it be either there, or before any brigadier, or colonel, or before a brigadier only? Pray give me your sentiments fully and freely on this matter, also with respect to the allotment of the brigades, (about which I wrote to you yesterday,) by return of the bearer, and despatch him as soon as you can, for I keep Gen. Pickens only till I hear from you on these points, and he is very anxious to get away."

Of his unremitted attention to the always difficult subject of militia organization, we have the following, dated the 17th September, at Congaree:—

"Dear Sir—I have allotted to your brigade the following regiments—viz.: Colonels Tartes, (?) McDonald's, Richardson's, Ervin's and Benton's, and the regiment formerly Maybank's. You will receive, herewith, a number of blank commissions. Be pleased to have the regiment fully and properly officered, mustered, and classed, or drafted, as soon as possible; and march one-third of them, with the utmost expedition, to head-quarters, or such other places as the Hon. Major-General Greene shall direct;—to do duty under his orders, for two months from the time of their arrival thereat. Enclosed, are such extracts from several laws as are necessary to be made known to the militia. You will have each colonel furnished with a copy of them, and order that they be publicly read at the head of his regiment, and a copy taken by each of his field officers and captains, that none may pretend ignorance of them. The militia laws may certainly be made much better than they are generally supposed to be. You will therefore appoint the most proper men in your brigade for officers, and have the laws carried strictly and steadily into execution. You will direct that the men come on foot, for they are to do duty as infantry; and their horses cannot be kept in camp, nor can any drafted men be spared to convey them back. If the number of commissions herewith sent are insufficient,

let me know how many more are wanted, and I will send them as soon as they can be printed. In the mean time, you will give brevets to officers for whom there are no commissions. I have written to Capt. A. Vanderhost to come and take command of the regiment, formerly Maybank's; and will keep the commission of colonel open until I hear from him. You will appoint a lieutenant-colonel, and other necessary officers, for that regiment. I will send you printed copies of the three proclamations which are enclosed, as soon as a press can be got to work. In the interim, pray have a copy taken and delivered to each colonel, with orders to have it read at the head of his regiment and circulated through the district. Pray have the enclosed letter to Col. Hugh Horry, and the papers, forwarded. My proclamation of this date suspends, until ten days after the next meeting and setting of the General Assembly, the acts which make Continental and State money a tender in law. All fines must therefore be paid in specie. By the militia law of 1778 and 1779, offenders are liable to be fined in sums not exceeding those which are therein mentioned. As they are imposed in current money, and the fines hereafter to be levied are to be paid in specie, it is necessary to ascertain to what amount in specie the court may fine. In 1776, militia were entitled to ten shillings current money a day. There was, at that time, no difference in the value of specie and paper money. In March, 1778, the pay of the militia continued the same. It is, therefore, to be presumed that no difference had then taken place between paper money and specie; at least there is no legislative acknowledgment of any depreciation. But in February, 1779, the pay of the militia was raised from 10*s.* to 32*s.* per day: the paper money having, and being admitted by the legislature, to be depreciated in that proportion. From these observations we may fix the following rule as the most just and equitable for determining how far the country may fine in specie—viz.: for fines imposed by the act of 1778, to the amount of the sums mentioned in the law. Thus, 100*l.* in specie (according to the old current rate of gold or silver) for 100*l.* current. But for fines under the act of 1779, they must not exceed, in specie, the sums therein mentioned: as 150*l.* specie (according to the old current rate of gold and silver) for 500*l.* currency. You will order all offenders who may be *condemned to the Continental service*, to be sent under a sufficient guard to headquarters. Persons against whose bodies executions issue, are to be committed to the jail at Waxsaws. You will give orders that no person be suffered to pass from this State into any other, through the district of your brigade, without a permit from me,—the general

commanding the continental troops,—one of his aids,—or a brigadier of militia;—and that all persons taken prisoners, or stopped on suspicion, be thoroughly searched, to prevent the enemy's carrying on a correspondence by their means."

We pass over numerous letters, which, in a work specially devoted to our subject, would possess undoubted interest. We propose to furnish samples only. These letters relate to suspected persons, to abuses in the militia, to their organization, to the gradual establishment of the civil authority, the supplies of troops, and the appointment of officers. Here we find an authority granted to a favourite partisan, for the impressment of dragoon horses—next, letters complaining of the abuse of this privilege, and inveighing against the impressment of "plough horses, breeding mares, two-year-old, and yearlings." "I should not," he writes to Horry, "have given a press-warrant for procuring horses for your regiment, if I could have conceived that the power would have been so abused by any of your officers; who certainly, upon reading the warrant, must have known better, if they did not before. The warrant extends only to horses *fit for the dragoon service*, which the creatures above described are clearly not," &c. The letter from which this extract is made, is alluded to in the following to Marion, which is interesting on many accounts, and not less so, as showing how wide was the extent of territory, and how numerous the objects which the vigilant eye of Rutledge had to keep within its survey.

"*Oct.* 10, 1781.

"Dear Sir—I received your's yesterday, by Mr. Boone, and wrote in the most pressing terms to Col. Williams, (Gen. Greene being not yet returned from Charlotte, for which place he set off last Friday, for a supply of ammunition,) sending, at the same time, an extract of such parts of your letter as were material on that head. I am sorry to find, by Col. Williams' answer, enclosed, which he sent open, for my perusal, that it is absolutely out of his power to comply with your request immediately. *I wish to God* it was within my power to send you ammunition instantly! but it is not. I shall not fail to have it sent to you as fast as any arrives at head-quarters; and you will observe Col. Williams says he expects a sufficient stock every hour. Our situation, in this respect, being unknown to the enemy, they will not profit by it; nor can I say that I expect they will attempt any measure against us. I rather think they will be apprehensive for their own safety. However, I wish this circumstance had

not intervened, to prevent your crossing the river, as I think your doing so, with your people, would have a good effect. This, I imagine, in the present situation of affairs you can't attempt: however, I know you will do all that you can. If Mr. Withers had sent the schooner, which was [at] Patterson's, to Savannah, agreeably to my directions, which I sent to him, immediately on receiving your letter, by Patterson, we should have had a large stock of ammunition for you and others, long ago; but he has delayed the matter, I think, very long. However, I am taking, and shall continue to take, steps which I hope will be effectual, in several directions, for procuring ammunition for employ, without depending on the Continental stock, which I find is, in general, small, and often exhausted. You certainly may clothe all the Continental soldiers of your line who join you.

"From something I have lately heard about Dutarque, I am more anxious than formerly to have him taken. Lest he should escape, be pleased, therefore, to order this matter to be effectually and speedily attended to.

"I am also devising means for a supply of arms. However, you know it is an old trick for men, coming to camp, to pretend they have none. I need not give you a hint, that it would be well to be sure that men really have not, and that they cannot provide arms, before they are discharged for want of them. Indeed, although men without arms are not of use in the camp, yet they may occasionally be detached from it, on service, with the arms of some who remain in camp.

"Enclosed is a brigadier's commision. I do not recollect the date of the former, but I dare say you do; be pleased, therefore, to insert it. I think Col. Horry's conduct very extraordinary, and have enclosed a letter to him upon the subject you mention. I send the letter open for your perusal. When you have read it, be pleased to seal and forward it. He is not yet a Continental officer, and his regiment is not yet on the Continental Establishment; but if he were, I know of no authority that any Continental officer or any other person (whoever he may be) has, to impress, in this State, without a power from me. Gen. Greene, it is true, did, before my return, direct him to impress; but he has never, (I believe, and indeed I am well persuaded of it,) since my return, given any such power to any one. He knows better. So far from it, that he requested me, if I approved the power which he had ordered Col. Horry to exercise, of impressing horses and articles necessary for the equipment of his regiment, to confirm what he had directed. I

accordingly sent him a press-warrant, in which the power was particularly confined to horses fit for the dragoon service, and not in public service; informing him, also, that your regiment are to do duty on horseback. This, therefore, would give him no power to take breeding mares and yearlings, (in order to exchange them for horses,) such not being fit for his regiment; nor the only horse that a man has, who is required to do militia duty on horseback. I am afraid, if all plough-horses were impressed, ... an exclusion would prevent our getting any horses at all; for all may be brought under either description. However, it is certainly extremely hard, and ought not to be suffered that the plough-horses, being necessarily employed to raise bread for the poorer kind of people, who *use horses as a kind of substitute for negroes*, should be taken. This would be very oppressive. I find every authority may be abused, and perhaps that which I have given on this head may be also. Therefore, to cut the matter short, wherever you find that it is wantonly exercised, and an oppressive and improper use is made of it, within the district of your brigade, I give you full authority to order the officer, attempting to impress such subjects, to cease from it, or to have them restored, if impressed. It would give me great pleasure to redress every encroachment on the liberties of the people; and I shall certainly do so, as far as my power extends, in any of the cases which you say you will mention to me when we meet. Col. Lee went up to Virginia last Friday. If he were here, I should immediately inquire into Mr. Ravanel's case, and have it redressed. However, pray inform me, if you can, where the mare is, and I will endeavour to have her taken and restored. I shall, before I hear from you, and as soon as I see Gen. Greene, or any of Lee's officers, inquire into this matter.

"I daily expected to hear, officially, of Cornwallis being reduced, and hope Charleston will be the next object of the combined army. It is not improbable that Count De Grasse may have sent, or will send, some ships, to block up the harbour. Pray give us what intelligence you can from below, that you think may be depended on. I will send you that from Virginia, if good, (as it must be,) as soon as we can get it.

"I am, with great regard, dear sir, your obedient servant,

J. Rutledge."

A letter of the 11th October relates to militia penalties, and the right construction of the law upon this subject. Another of the 12th may yet furnish hints, equally to the romancer and the histo-

rian. It relates to a sort of *picaroon* business, which has not been much noticed by the chroniclers.

"Dear Sir—The captains of several vessels, with commissions or letters of marque from Congress, having some time ago made a practice of landing on our islands and sea-coast; and others of coming up the rivers, and taking away from plantations negroes and other property, under pretence of their owners being Tories, though several persons whose property has been so taken are well known to be friends of the United States; and this practice being highly illegal and unwarrantable, even as to Tories, whose property (if they have been guilty of a capital offence) is forfeited to the State, and not plunder to any freebooter who can lay hold on it, I desire that you will be pleased to give the necessary orders, and have the most effectual measures taken (within the district of your brigade,) for having all masters of vessels and their crews—who shall commit, or attempt to commit the offence above described—apprehended and sent under a sufficient guard to me, with the witnesses to prove the fact, that they may be properly tried for it. You will have the vessels in which such captains and mariners come, with their cargoes, secured until you shall receive directions from me what is to be done with them; and make reports to me of what the cargoes consist."

Another of the same date, proposes to abridge the amount of aid and comfort which may be given to the enemy. Another of the 25th of September, on the subject of militia substitutes, deserves to be put on record, as useful to future history.

"Sir—I am informed that several persons liable to do militia duty, have found substitutes to perform it for them, and that others have paid money to officers, to procure men in the Continental or State service, by which means such men have been excused by their officers from militia duty. As this practice has introduced, and must occasion great irregularity and confusion, I think proper to issue a special and particular order on this head, and to give reasons against the practice above mentioned, and for the propriety of this order. This law does not allow every man the privilege of sending a substitute; nor does it exempt him from militia duty by paying such a sum as his officer may think proper to receive, either in lieu of personal service, to find a Continental or State soldier, or for any other purpose. Therefore, any officer taking on him to give an exemption from militia duty, to one who provides a substitute, or pays money to

procure a regular soldier, acts illegally and unwarrantably. Such conduct never did, nor ever will receive my sanction or approbation. The militia are to be divided into three classes; in one or other of which every man must appear. Each of these classes is liable to be called out for two months. This makes every militiaman liable to march twice a year. (I mean those who are above 80 miles from the enemy—for, if within that distance, the draught may be greater, and the term of service longer.) If he refuses, or neglects to march, he is liable to a fine not exceeding one hundred and fifty pounds, specie, being about the specie value (at the time when the militia act of the 13th of February, 1799, was passed) of five hundred pounds, current money; and to a further fine, not exceeding a third part in specie, of treble the amount of his tax: such third part being about the comparative value (upon the principle laid down) between specie and paper money; in the latter of which he was liable to be fined, not exceeding treble his tax. The only alternative, then, is to do militia duty, or undergo his trial by a court-martial, and pay such fines in specie (not exceeding the amounts above mentioned) as they may adjudge, for his neglect or refusal. You will give the necessary orders for observing this rule within your brigade. No other regard is to be had to those who have found substitutes, or paid money to procure men, or for public purpose, than, if they do not choose to perform militia duty, to allow them credit on account of their fine for the specie value of what they paid to procure a substitute, or for public purpose. You will order a regular account to be kept of all moneys received, or to be received on the score above mentioned; which is to be paid into your hands by those who originally received it. Be pleased to make a return to me of what money has been thus received; and every two months, of all which may be received, that a proper disposition of it may be ordered. I hope these instructions, and those of the 17th instant, are sufficiently clear and extensive. I will endeavour to make them so if any doubt should remain or arise, or any explanation be requisite, upon your communicating them to me."

A note to this letter covers a proclamation in which pardon is offered to the Tories; in preparing which, Governor Rutledge admits that he "has been very much puzzled." He concludes to make certain exceptions, which probably governed the Legislature at a subsequent period, in the indulgences which they accorded to the more favoured, and the denials of favour which they deserved, to the greatly odious among the offenders. On the 6th of October, he

again wrote to Marion about the organization of his brigade, and of the militia.

These letters are all valuable, as they grow out of the experience of a time which tried militiamen's souls quite as much as other men's.

"Dear Sir—I received your letter of the 2d instant, the day before yesterday, and should have answered it sooner, but have been disabled by sickness. The order respecting the militia marching on foot, was general to all the regiments; but as the movements and employment of your brigade are different from those of any other, I think the reasons good for your continuing to act on horseback. You will therefore order them to do so. By your order of the 2d instant, to Col. Richardson, I perceive you have mistaken my intention, which was not to bring to trial, by court-martial, (in order that they may be fined in specie,) such persons as have refused to do duty. My desire is that the regiment be mustered, and classed or drafted, and the extracts of the militia law, my orders respecting the militia, and the proclamation suspending the *Tender Acts*, be read at the head of each regiment, in order that they may be publicly notified, and no person hereafter pretend ignorance of them. This being done, the instructions are to operate against all future offenders, whether they have found substitutes in the militia, provided regular soldiers, or paid money for those or other purposes; but until this be done, persons who have refused to do military duty are only finable in paper money; and I am rather of opinion that it is most expedient not to inquire into past offences, but to begin upon the new plan which I have laid down. As to persons who have found substitutes, or done any other acts which they were made to believe would exempt them from militia duty, and who have therefore refused to perform it—the bringing them to a court-martial for such past offences would be extremely hard, if the court should fine largely, and might give umbrage to many officers who probably conceived they had a right to receive money or substitutes for exemptions from duty, and that in so doing they were rendering the most effectual service to their country. But it is likely that under such circumstances, the court would either acquit, or fine them in a very small sum. For these reasons, I would recommend the overlooking all past offences, or neglect of duty: and you will therefore alter your orders to Col. Richardson, and any other similar orders which you may have given to other colonels, and make those orders conformable to this explanation; but enjoin the strictest and steadiest execution of these orders in future.

"Gen. Greene informs me that he is much in want of a more

choice corps of militia to patrol in the vicinity of his camp, and prevent the soldiers from strolling, or offering any injury to the inhabitants. You will be pleased to order Col. Richardson to go to the general, know from him what number of men he will want, and furnish them for that purpose out of the first draft. The performance of such a duty will exempt the men employed in it (whilst they are so employed) from any other. My idea is, though I presume no doubt has arisen with you on the point, that no man that is within the district of any regiment, out of Charleston, shall be excused from militia duty, under a pretence that he is on parole, or a British subject, unless the former has been fairly taken in arms, and paroled as an officer. Any other men who are on parole, or insist upon being British subjects, and therefore refuse to do militia duty, may take their choice either of doing it, or going into the enemy's lines; and if they will not go, and refuse to do duty, they must be tried and fined as it is directed with respect to other privates. You will not, however, consider this instruction—it being a general one—as any prohibition to you to suffer such persons in either of the predicaments last mentioned, as you may think proper to permit, to remain out of the British lines, without doing any militia duty at all, for some more valuable purpose—this being a matter which I leave to your discretion. I find there are many gentlemen riding about the country under the description of volunteers, who render no service to it. This practice being very injurious, should be immediately suppressed; and no man is to be excused from doing militia duty in the district of the regiment to which he belongs, unless he is actually enrolled and obliged for some certain time to serve in some regular corps of cavalry, not merely as a volunteer, but to do the same duty, and subject to the same articles, as the rest of the corps are obliged to do or are subject to. The blankets and cloth you mention, will certainly be wanted for public use; you will therefore have them safely kept somewhere under your orders, and indeed we shall want more than you can procure. I shall therefore be glad that you obtain all that you possibly can, and have that also kept in the same manner. Be pleased to forward the enclosed letters to Colonels Horry and Mayham. There are several other matters which I will write to you about, as soon as I can consider and arrange them. I am unable at present to do so. Capt. Richardson informs me that he has not above three bushels of salt left. As three barrels, or twenty-four bushels, will be absolutely necessary for the use of myself and the gentlemen of the Council, whom I daily expect here, I shall be much obliged to you to send, in your first letter to me, an

order on any person who has the charge of any salt of yours, (the nearest to this place,) to deliver that quantity to such person as I may send for it."

We pass over many letters of minor importance, and come to one of the 16th of October, 1781, which is of exceeding interest, betraying a considerable exigency in State affairs, and showing at the same time the strong understanding and energetic resolves of the governor.

"Dear Sir—I have just now received yours of the 13th inst. by the bearer. You were misinformed with respect to young Allston's business with me; but had it been what you were told, the Waccamites would have been disappointed; for my sentiments corresponded exactly with yours on the point you mention. The orders that no substitutes be admitted, will answer the end you propose, and make them as well as others of the same stamp either go into the British lines, to militia duty, or pay such fines as a court-martial may inflict—unless you think proper to make use of my private instructions with respect to them. I am told that an offer is to come from the Wiccamaw men about furnishing a quantity of salt, in order to be excused from militia duty. If it should, I shall refer it to you to fix the matter with them. Dr. Neufville was taken sick at Salisbury, on his way from the northward. He may probably be recovered ere now. I will write to him to come on directly in order to be your surgeon, and in the mean time will endeavour to get you one from camp; though I fear I cannot, as the troops are exceedingly sick, and in want of doctors. Yours of the 15th is also just come to hand by Captain Greene, with Mr. Dutarque, whom I have sent to Sheriff Kimball. You will be pleased to consider the directions respecting Belin's estate, as extended to Dutarque, and give the same orders about the latter as you have done about the former. You will either confine Mr. Walter where you think proper, and he will be safe, or send him, with the proofs of the charges you mention against him, under guard to me; and pray send Mr. James Sinclair into the enemy's lines, and do the same with every man who is taken at home. I would make the rule general as to every man so taken. But it may happen that good men will sometimes be taken at their own houses, and it would be hard to send them in to remain. This is no time to be trifled with. We must be in earnest. Therefore all men thus taken, who are reasonably suspected of not being friends to the State, are to be dealt with as above mentioned. I wish Mr. Peter Sinclair

could be exchanged. General Greene is to be here to-day, and I will speak to him on the subject, though I fear it cannot be done, as Major Berry is come up. He cannot, though a favourite, get exchanged for Washington; and I presume from that circumstance the cartel is suspended for the present. I have the pleasure to inform you that Congress have at last, on the 18th ult., ordered the Board of War to have the mines at Simsbury, Connecticut, prepared for the reception of five hundred British soldiers, to remain there as prisoners unexchangeably, until the American soldiers who were forced into the British service at Charleston and elsewhere are returned to the United States. This measure, or the putting these men on board the French fleet, as marines, is what I have often and strenuously recommended long ago; but it could never be effected sooner. It is, however, better late than never; and though so long postponed, will, I hope, produce good consequences. The general writes to me that he has received a letter from the President of Congress, informing him that the French fleet had sunk a 74 gun ship, disabled five more, and drove the rest of the British fleet into the Hook, at New York. We have no later intelligence from Virginia than to the 25th ult.; when General Washington had twenty-six thousand men, and half of them regulars, and was to begin his operations by regular approaches on the 27th. God grant that he may be successful there, and soon give us peaceable and quiet possession both of our town and country!"

Letters follow in relation to the seizure and storage of indigo, and minor details in relation to fines, exempts, and militia duty in general. A long letter to Marion discusses several topics which might be tributary in small respects, to our general history, but which is quite too long for our limits. The behaviour of some of Horry's officers in the matter of impressments is again the subject, and prompts a sharp letter to the colonel, which is followed by others in a more indulgent temper. Meanwhile the progress of events and of the American arms has been gradually contracting the British operations to the immediate precincts of the capital. Charleston, and the isthmus called the Neck, was all that now really remained to them of their extensive conquests; and this almost complete recovery of the State to the American arms naturally suggested the resumption of the business of government, by a call of the Legislature to their duties. Writs of election were accordingly issued. A letter to Marion, dated November 23, relates to this subject, and covers *writs* for him to distribute. The Legislature was appointed

to convene at the village of Jacksonborough, on the 18th January, 1782. The army of Greene, meanwhile, was set in motion, to take post between this position and the British post below. In the interim, Governor Rutledge writes to Marion, under date of December 4, 1781. The subjects are interesting—the militia, the tories, and the decline of British ascendancy. We omit some portions of this letter.

"I am much of your opinion," says the writer, "that several scoundrels will quit the town and surrender themselves, in order to obtain a pardon, by serving six months in the militia; but it does not follow that they will be pardoned. Those whose conduct and character have been so infamous that they cannot, consistently with policy or practice, be admitted to the privileges of Americans, may, and probably will be sent back. . . . . As General Greene set off last Tuesday for Four Holes and the lower part of the country, I am in hopes you have seen each other before now; and I am inclined to believe that his position will be such, even before the reinforcements arrive at head-quarters, that the enemy will not think it safe to venture far into the country. After the reinforcements arrive, I think he will keep them below the Quarter House, unless Charleston should be reinforced, which I do not think it will be immediately. The surrender of Cornwallis must perplex Clinton, as well as the Ministry; and I apprehend he will wait for their directions what step to take next. I do not think, however, that the enemy will evacuate the town, until they see a force on our part sufficient to compel them to do so. They are under great apprehensions (and I hope with good reason for them) for their West India possessions."

With another interesting letter, dated the 15th December, we conclude our extracts from this collection of original correspondence.

"Dear Sir—You will consider the Charleston regiment of militia as annexed to your brigade, and make the necessary appointments. I am told that the troops which are coming from the northward bring eight hundred stand of arms. If you apply to General Greene for arms, it is probable that on their arrival he may spare some of them to you. I have written to Philadelphia for arms and ammunition for the State's use, and expect them by return of the wagons which carried indigo thither, and which I think must be now about setting off to come back. On their arrival, I hope to give your brigade a

good supply. I wish to procure twelve barrels of rice for the use of the Assembly at their intended meeting on the 8th of next month. Be pleased to have that quantity procured, as high up Santee River as it can be got, and let me know, *as soon as possible*, where it is, that I may order wagons down to fetch it from thence to Camden in time. I purpose setting out for General Greene's camp on the 7th of next month, and request that you will send me an escort of twenty-five men, with a proper officer, from Mayham's corps. Let them be here the day before, and well mounted, as I shall travel pretty expeditiously."

With these selections we close our review of a correspondence which throws much light upon the domestic history of the South at a very difficult period, and sufficiently exhibits the devotion of the writer to the most various interests of his country. These letters, useful in themselves, were too much addressed to mere details, to suffer the writer to rise to the exercise of those peculiar powers of generalization and utterance which constituted the foundation of his acknowledged eloquence. His speech at the opening of the Assembly, so long suspended, will serve as a specimen of the compactness of his statements, rather than as a sample of his oratory.

The Jacksonborough Assembly, as it was popularly called, presented the appearance of a Parliament of feudal barons. Most of the members were drawn from the army, or had seen service at one time or other in the camp. Many of them hurried to and fro between their commands and the Assembly,—now to strike at the enemy, and now to give a vote in civil affairs. It was a body highly distinguished by its talent, and, with one exception, by the moderateness of its measures.

This was an act for amercing and confiscating the estates of some of the most obnoxious of the loyalists, and for banishing others;—a measure highly and generally disapproved of, when the exigencies of the war were over, and when the tempers of the people had been mollified by the most ample concessions from their enemies. Governor Rutledge countenanced and probably counselled this measure. It was carried by a large majority of votes, so that the odium of the proceeding, if deserved by any, must be shared among the many, and not cast exclusively upon the one. But censure was entirely undeserved. When the act was passed, the foreign enemy was still in possession of the metropolis. Their troops still assessed the country; still plundered the whig inhabitants; and the loyalists still served in considerable numbers in the British army. They still gave

aid and comfort to the foe, and deserved to suffer, particularly as, by similar processes of confiscation, they had robbed and ruined the estates and families of the brave men who were fighting the battles of the country. A want of means for the continued maintenance of the Continental army, in South Carolina and Georgia—both of which States were on the eve of emancipation—justified the measure; even if the wrongs done by the loyalists, and the provocations endured by the patriots, had not given it the fullest sanction.

The term of office for which Mr. Rutledge had been elected had now expired; and as, by the rotation established, it became necessary to choose a new governor, he yielded up his commission to the hands that gave it. He retired from his high and most responsible position with an immense increase of popularity. He had amply justified the choice and confidence of the country. His exertions to repel invasion—in the defence of Charleston—in procuring aid from the neighbouring States and from Congress—in stimulating and encouraging the people—in sustaining their leaders—in rolling back the tide of British conquest—in reviving the legislative and judicial authorities,—exhibited powers equally large and various; and a courage, decision, and industry, which had never been surpassed. We have shown that these services were greatly acknowledged by the Assembly. In the termination of his executive duties, he was not suffered to retire from public service, but was immediately elected as a delegate to Congress.

Here he was called upon to perform an extraordinary duty. The surrender of Cornwallis, in October, 1781, threatened for a time to be quite as unfortunate for the conqueror, as for the conquered. Assuming the emergency of war to be at an end by this event, the States sunk into apathy and indifference. Victory had began to paralyze their exertions, ere yet they had fully secured the fruits and trophies of the field. They acted no longer with energy and vigour. Their contributions to the common cause were withheld; and, it became a subject of great and reasonable apprehension, lest Great Britain, encouraged by this languor and apathy, should determine upon new exertions, and at the last moment withhold from the nation the great prize of independence. The renewal of war would have been an entire, though temporary, loss of all that had been gained. To prevent so dire a result, Congress sent deputations from their body to the different States, to arouse them, by proper representations of their danger, to a sense of their duty. In this character John Rutledge, with whom was associated George Clymer, was commissioned on the 22d May, 1782, "to make such represen-

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tations to the several States southward of Philadelphia, as were best adapted to their respective circumstances and the present situation of public affairs, and as might induce them to carry the requisitions of Congress into effect with the greatest despatch."* In the performance of this duty the delegates were permitted to address the Virginia Assembly, and the result was a triumph highly honourable to the eloquence of Rutledge. So happy was his portraiture of the condition of the country,—so vivid and forcible the argument by which he urged the necessity of a prompt and vigorous performance of their trust, as guardians of a great State and constituents of a vast empire,—that the impression which he sought to make was complete. His object was gained; and the Virginians, who even in that early day were proud, and with good reason, of their orators and statesmen, were not unwilling to admit the eloquent Carolinian to the same platform with their own deservedly renowned, Patrick Henry.

Mr. Rutledge served in Congress till 1783, and was soon after appointed Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States to Holland; but he declined the appointment; and the year following was elected a Judge of the Court of Chancery in South Carolina. The necessity for this court had been greatly increased by the events of the war just ended. Mr. Rutledge framed the bill for its organization on a new model, and introduced several of the improvements then recently made in the English courts of similar jurisdiction. Hitherto his duties had been rather legislative or executive, with some considerable connection with the military. They were now to become judicial. He was destined to occupy all the rounds of responsibility. Had his performances not been singularly fortunate in his previous career, we should, perhaps, have said that the judiciary was his true field. He was born a lawyer. His studies in this profession had been pursued *con amore*. He had wrestled with the law as one wrestles with a mistress, and had taken her to his heart as well as to his lips. His knowledge of principles was profound, his appreciation of details accurate and immense; and that large grasp of judgment—that comprehensive reach of vision—which enabled him to take in at a glance not merely the central proportions, but all its several relations and dependencies, eminently fitted him for the new career before him. With the facts fairly within his survey, his *coup d'œil* was instantaneous. His mind seemed to leap to its conclusions at a bound. He loved pleadings—could listen, with rare

* See Burke's History of the War.

delight, to the eloquence of the specious advocate; but while these gratified his sense of the ingenious and the beautiful, they failed to persuade his fancy, or to mislead his judgment. His sense of justice was invincible. He threaded with ease the most difficult avenues of litigation—speedily resolved the subtleness of special pleading—steadily pursued, and finally grasped, the leading principle of the case, and rendered his judgments so luminously and forcibly, as, in most cases, to satisfy even those who suffered from his decision.

In the year 1787, Mr. Rutledge was again called to the service of the nation. He was required to assist in framing a national constitution, in place of the advisory system of the Confederation. In arranging the provision of that bond of Union, and in persuading his countrymen to attempt it, he was eminently successful. Under the new constitution he was selected, by Washington, as the first Associate Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States. This was a distinction sufficiently showing in what estimation his judicial talents and virtues were held by the President and by the nation. It was because of this appointment, we may presume, that the Senate of the United States were recently presented with the scheme of honouring his memory with a bust. In this office he served till 1791, when he was called to the chair of Chief Justice of South Carolina. Subsequently, he was made Chief Justice of the United States. He was thus, for more than thirty years, continually in the harness—always in stations of difficulty and great responsibility, and passing through the ordeal, in every instance, without a scratch upon the ermine of his character, and to the constant increase of his reputation for wisdom and ability. He closed his mortal career on the 23d of January, 1800, in the sixty-first year of his age; full of honours to the last, and leaving a name among his people which they should not "willingly let die."

OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

Oliver Ellsworth was born at Windsor, in Connecticut, April 29th, 1745. His father was a farmer, and his own youth was passed alternately in agricultural labours and liberal studies. At the age of 17, he entered Yale College, which he subsequently left for the College of Nassau Hall, at Princeton.

After completing his academic course at Princeton, in 1766, he

studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1771, in the county of Hartford, Conecticut, where he commenced the practice, and acquired in a few years a high professional reputation, that occasioned his appointment as State's Attorney.

From the commencement of the revolutionary struggle, Mr. Ellsworth sided with the colonies; he went into actual service against the enemy with the militia of Connecticut, and, as a member of the General Assembly of that State, took a large share in all the political discussions and measures. In 1777, he was chosen a delegate to the Congress of the United States, in which body he continued for three years. In 1780, he became a member of the council of Connecticut, and, in 1784, was appointed a judge of the superior court of the State—an office which he filled for several years with great reputation. In 1787, he was chosen by the Legislature one of the delegates of Connecticut to the convention for framing a federal constitution, to be held in Philadelphia. In this illustrious assembly he obtained much influence and distinction. It is believed, that the present organization and mode of appointment of the Senate were suggested by him. As he was called away by other duties, his name is not among those of the signers of the constitution which was adopted, but he approved the work, and warmly supported it in the State Convention. Two of his very able speeches in its defence are preserved in the third volume of Carey's American Museum.

When the Constitution was ratified, Judge Ellsworth was elected a senator to the first Congress, which met at New York, in 1789; and he retained his seat till 1796, during almost the whole of President Washington's administration. The bill for organizing the judiciary department was drawn up by him; and the part which he took in most of the great questions of politics or public economy, raised him to a lofty eminence in the eyes of the country.

In 1796, when Mr. Jay resigned the office of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, President Washington appointed Mr. Ellsworth his successor. To this trust he proved fully equal, though he had been long estranged from the practice of his profession. All his habits and faculties were specially adapted to the discharge of judicial functions. At the close of the year 1799, he was selected to be one of the three envoys to France—Governor Davie of North Carolina, and the Honourable William Vans Murray being his colleague—in order to adjust those differences which had assumed the character of war. For this errand he was not so well qualified as for the career which he had previously run; but the convention, which was concluded by the envoys with the French government,

obtained the assent of the President and the Senate. His health was so much impaired by a long and tempestuous sea voyage, that he was obliged to pass over to England from France, in order, chiefly, to try the efficacy of the British mineral waters. The same cause induced him to transmit from England, to President Washington, his resignation of the office of Chief Justice. As soon as he acquired some fresh strength, he returned to his native country, and retired to his family residence at Windsor, in Connecticut. In 1802, he entered again into the council of State, and in 1807, was elected the Chief Justice of the State, but declined this station. The nephritic complaints, to which he had been long subject, attained a fatal violence this year, and caused his death in the 63d year of his age.

Oliver Ellsworth was one of the most distinguished of the revolutionary patriots of America, of her statesmen, and her lawyers. He filled a large space in the eyes of his countrymen. His personal character and domestic life were exemplary. His friend, Dr. Dwight, has commemorated his merits in his "Travels in New England."

JOHN MARSHALL.

For a biographical notice of Chief Justice Marshall, see page 259.

ROGER BROOKE TANEY.

For a biographical notice of the present Chief Justice, Roger Brooke Taney, see page 430.

THE END.

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